

English for Business Studies

A course for Business Studies
and Economics students

Second
Edition

Student's Book

Ian MacKenzie

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Introduction to the learner

English for Business Studies is a reading, speaking, listening and writing course for learners with at least an upper-intermediate level of English who need to understand and express the key concepts of business and economics. It covers the most important areas of management, production, marketing, finance and macroeconomics.

This course aims to:

- present you with the language and concepts found in books, newspaper and magazine articles and websites on business and economics;
- develop your comprehension of business and economic texts;
- develop your listening skills in the fields of business and economics;
- provide you with opportunities to express business concepts, by reformulating them in your own words while summarizing, analysing, criticizing and discussing ideas.

Most of the units contain three components:

- 1 An informative reading text giving an overview of a particular topic, introducing key business and economic concepts, and including a large amount of relevant technical vocabulary, along with a variety of related comprehension and vocabulary exercises and discussion activities.
- 2 **Either** listening exercises on authentic interviews with business people and economists, **or** a shorter authentic reading passage, from newspapers, books about business or economics, fiction, and so on, accompanied by exercises. The interviewees include British and American native speakers, but also non-native speakers from Germany, Italy, Switzerland, India and Malaysia. After all, probably only a small part of the English you hear in your professional life will be spoken by people who have English as a first language.
- 3 An additional case study, role play, discussion activity or writing exercise.

There is additional language practice material (on numbers, word stress, and so on), and a glossary of business and economic terms with translations into French, German, Italian and Spanish, at the back of the book.

If you are using this book in a class with a teacher, it should give you lots of opportunities to discuss ideas and issues with other learners (in pairs or small groups), and to develop and defend your own point of view.

If you are using this course on your own, you will obviously have more difficulty doing the spoken activities with other learners, but you will still be able to do the reading and listening activities. You will find the answers to the exercises and tapescripts of the interviews in the *English for Business Studies* Teacher's Book.

Unit 1 | The three sectors of the economy

1 The economic infrastructure

1a Vocabulary

Identify the most prominent features in this photograph, which illustrates various important elements of the infrastructure of a modern industrialized country.



1b Reading

In this extract from David Lodge's novel *Nice Work*, Robyn Penrose, a university English lecturer, is accompanying Vic Wilcox, the managing director of a manufacturing company, on a business trip to Germany. She looks out of the aeroplane window, and begins to think about the essentially English act of making a cup of tea.

What is the key point that this extract is making about economies?

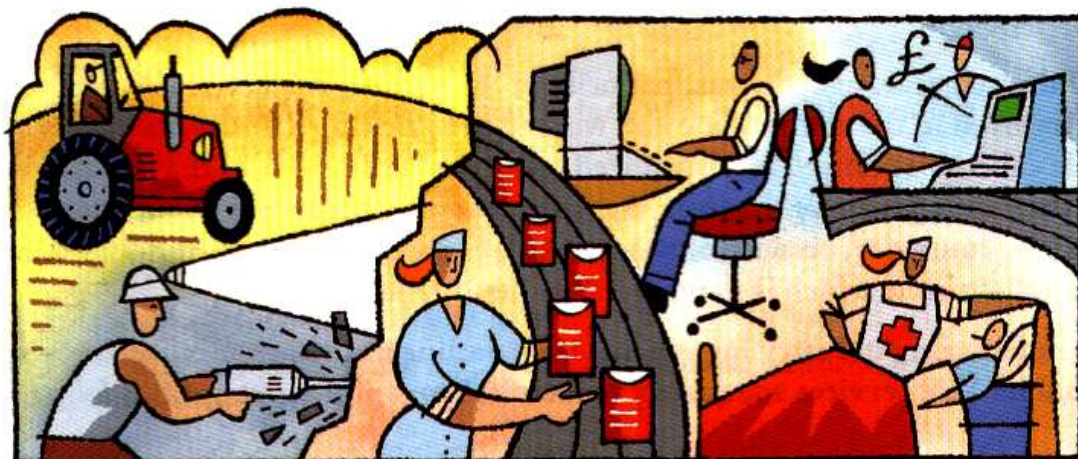
Sunlight flooded the cabin as the plane changed course. It was a bright, clear morning. Robyn looked out of the window as England slid slowly by beneath them: cities and towns, their street plans like printed circuits, scattered over a mosaic of tiny fields, connected by the thin wires of railways and motorways. Hard to imagine at this height all the noise and commotion going on down there. Factories, shops, offices, schools, beginning the working day. People crammed into rush hour buses and trains, or sitting at the wheels of their cars in traffic jams, or washing up breakfast things in the kitchens of pebble-dashed semis. All inhabiting their own little worlds, oblivious of how they fitted into the total picture. The housewife, switching on her electric kettle to make another cup of tea, gave no thought to the immense complex of operations that made that simple action possible: the building and maintenance of the power station that produced the electricity, the mining of coal or pumping of oil to fuel the generators, the laying of miles of cable to carry the current to her house, the digging and smelting and milling of ore or bauxite into sheets of steel or aluminium, the cutting and pressing and welding of the metal into the kettle's shell, spout and handle, the assembling of these parts with scores of other components – coils, screws, nuts, bolts, washers, rivets, wires, springs, rubber insulation, plastic trimmings; then the packaging of the kettle, the advertising of the kettle, the marketing of the kettle to wholesale and retail outlets, the transportation of the kettle to warehouses and shops, the calculation of its price, and the distribution of its added value between all the myriad people and agencies concerned in its production. The housewife gave no thought to all this as she switched on her kettle. Neither had Robyn until this moment, and it would never have occurred to her to do so before she met Vic Wilcox.

(David Lodge: *Nice Work*)

1c Comprehension

We generally describe the economy as consisting of three sectors:

- the **primary sector**: agriculture, and the extraction of raw materials from the earth;
- the **secondary sector**: manufacturing industry, in which raw materials are turned into finished products (although of course many of the people working for manufacturing companies do not actually *make* anything, but provide a service – administration, law, finance, marketing, selling, computing, personnel, and so on);
- the **tertiary sector**: the commercial services that help industry produce and distribute goods to the final consumers, as well as activities such as education, health care, leisure, tourism, and so on.



- 1 In lines 4–7, Robyn sees examples of all three. What are they?
- 2 The long sentence in lines 11–28 lists a large number of operations belonging to the different sectors of the economy. Classify the 18 activities from the passage according to which sector they belong to:

advertising products

calculating prices

distributing added value

marketing products

packaging products

smelting iron

assembling

cutting metal

laying cables

milling metal

pressing metal

transportation

building

digging iron ore

maintenance

mining coal

pumping oil

welding metal

- 3 Can you think of *three* important activities to add to each list (not necessarily in relation to the kettle)?

1d Discussion

Which sector do you intend to work in or do you already work in? How do you 'fit into the total picture'?

How many people in the tertiary sector have you already spoken to today (travelling to college or work, shopping, eating, and so on)? What about people in the other two sectors? When did you last talk to someone who grew or produced food, for example?

2 Manufacturing and services



■ Agricultural labour, represented by Jules Breton ('The Gleaners', 1855)

Two hundred years ago, the vast majority of the population of virtually every country lived in the countryside and worked in agriculture. Today, in what many people call 'the advanced industrialized countries', only 2–3% of the population earn their living from agriculture. But some people already talk about 'the post-industrial countries', because of the growth of service industries, and the decline of manufacturing, which is moving to 'the developing countries'.

Is manufacturing industry important? Is its decline in the 'advanced' countries inevitable? Will services adequately replace it? Two opinions about this follow.

2a Reading

Read this extract from an interview with the well-known Canadian economist, John Kenneth Galbraith, and answer the questions.

- 1 Why do people worry about the decline of manufacturing?
- 2 Which activities are as important as the production of goods?
- 3 Should people worry about this state of affairs?



■ The economist
J.K. Galbraith

We worry about unemployment and the loss of manufacturing industry in the advanced industrial countries only because we don't look at the larger social developments. The US, for example, no longer depends on heavy industry for employment to the extent that it once did.

This is related to a larger fact that has attracted very little discussion. After a country's people are supplied with the physical objects of consumption, they go on to concern about their design. They go on to an enormous industry persuading

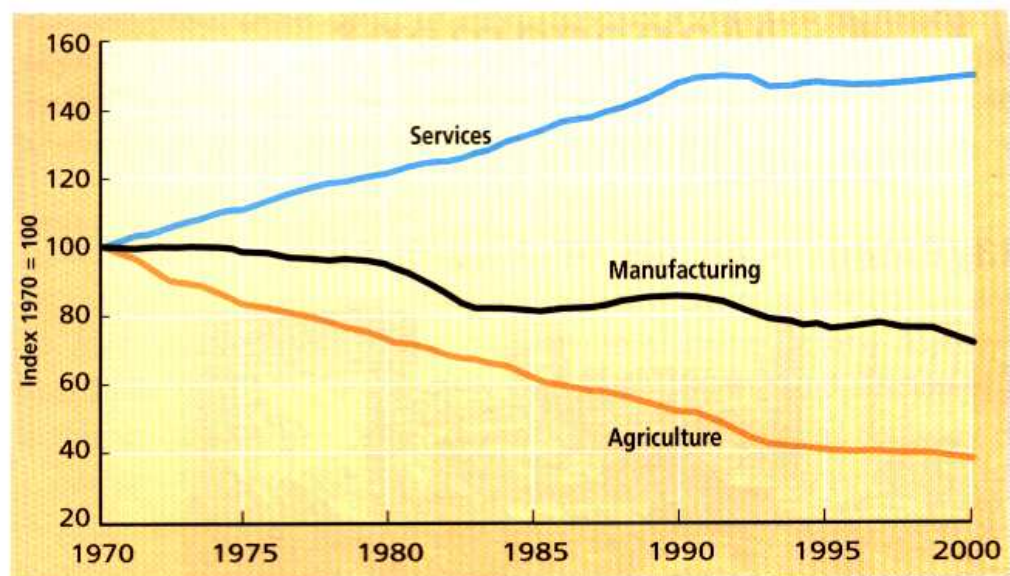
people they should buy these goods; they go on to the arts, entertainment, music, amusement – these become the further, later stages of employment. And these are things that are extremely important.

Paris, London, New York and so on do not live on manufacturing; they live on design and entertainment. We do not want to consider that this is the solid substance of economics, but it is.

I don't think it is possible to stop this progressive change in the patterns of human consumption. It is inevitable.

(J.K. Galbraith in conversation with Steve Platt, *New Statesman and Society*)

2b Listening



■ Employment in the European Union 1970–2000

Listen to a short interview with Denis MacShane, a British Member of Parliament for the Labour Party. Does he hold the same view as J.K. Galbraith?

Now listen again and answer the following questions.

- 1 Why does MacShane think that manufacturing has a future?
- 2 Why does MacShane think that manufacturing has a future *in the advanced countries*?
- 3 Why, however, is this manufacturing unlikely to solve the problem of unemployment?
- 4 What does MacShane mean by 'in theory there should be no more manufacturing' in Switzerland? (It is this theory that makes many people argue that manufacturing must move to 'less-developed' countries.)
- 5 Why does he say it is surprising for a *British* company to be buying Swiss goods?
- 6 What is the reason he gives for the United States still being the richest nation in the world?
- 7 Match up the following expressions and definitions:

1 to convert itself	A manual work
2 to serve needs	B to change from one thing to another
3 labour input	C to be uncertain, disbelieving
4 to stumble on	D to satisfy people's desires or requirements
5 to be dubious	E to discover something by accident



■ British Member of Parliament, Denis MacShane

2c Writing

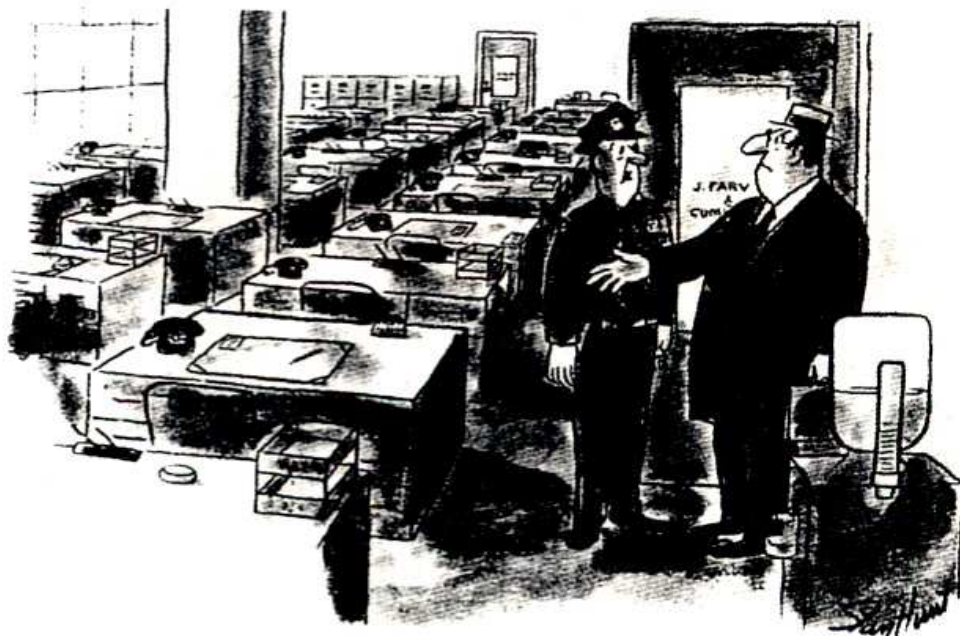
Summarize both Galbraith's and MacShane's arguments in a short paragraph of fewer than 50 words.

2d Discussion

Do you agree with either of these views?

Unit 2 Management

1 Management – an art or a science?



"Nobody came to work today, Mr Farvis, because today is a national holiday. Today is Christmas."

1a Discussion

- 1 What is management? Is it an art or a science? An instinct or a set of skills and techniques that can be taught?
- 2 What do you think makes a good manager? Which *four* of the following qualities do you think are the most important?
 - A being decisive: able to make quick decisions
 - B being efficient: doing things quickly, not leaving tasks unfinished, having a tidy desk, and so on
 - C being friendly and sociable
 - D being able to communicate with people
 - E being logical, rational and analytical
 - F being able to motivate and inspire and lead people
 - G being authoritative: able to give orders
 - H being competent: knowing one's job perfectly, as well as the work of one's subordinates
 - I being persuasive: able to convince people to do things
 - J having good ideas
 - K being highly educated and knowing a lot about the world
 - L being prepared to work 50 to 60 hours a week
 - M wanting to make a lot of money

Are there any qualities that you think should be added to this list?
- 3 Which of these qualities can be acquired? Which must you be born with?

1b Reading

This text summarizes some of Peter Drucker's views on management. As you read about his description of the work of a manager, decide whether the five different functions he mentions require the four qualities you selected in your discussion, or others you did not choose.



■ Peter Drucker

WHAT IS MANAGEMENT?

Peter Drucker, the well-known American business professor and consultant, suggests that the work of a manager can be divided into planning (setting objectives), organizing, integrating (motivating and communicating), measuring, and developing people.

- First of all, managers (especially senior managers such as company chairmen – and women – and directors) set objectives, and decide how their organization can achieve them. This involves developing strategies, plans and precise tactics, and allocating resources of people and money.
- Secondly, managers organize. They analyse and classify the activities of the organization and the relations among them. They divide the work into manageable activities and then into individual jobs. They select people to manage these units and perform the jobs.
- Thirdly, managers practise the social skills of motivation and communication. They also have to communicate objectives to the people responsible for attaining them. They have to make the people who are responsible for performing individual jobs form teams. They make decisions about pay and promotion. As well as organizing and supervising the work of their subordinates, they have to work with people in other areas and functions.
- Fourthly, managers have to measure the performance of their staff, to see whether the objectives set for the organization as a whole and for each individual member of it are being achieved.
- Lastly, managers develop people – both their subordinates and themselves.

Obviously, objectives occasionally have to be modified or changed. It is generally the job of a company's top managers to consider the needs of the future, and to take responsibility for innovation, without which any organization can only expect a limited life. Top managers also have to manage a business's relations with customers, suppliers, distributors, bankers, investors, neighbouring communities, public authorities, and so on, as well as deal with any major crises which arise. Top managers are appointed and supervised and advised (and dismissed) by a company's board of directors.

Although the tasks of a manager can be analysed and classified in this fashion, management is not entirely scientific. It is a human skill. Business professors obviously believe that intuition and 'instinct' are not enough; there are management skills that have to be learnt. Drucker, for example, wrote nearly 30 years ago that 'Altogether this entire book is based on the proposition that the days of the "intuitive" manager are numbered,'* meaning that they were coming to an end. But some people are clearly good at management, and others are not. Some people will be unable to put management techniques into practice. Others will have lots of technique, but few good ideas. Outstanding managers are rather rare.

* Peter Drucker: *An Introductory View of Management*

1c Vocabulary

Complete the following sentences with these words.

achieved board of directors communicate innovations
manageable performance resources setting supervise

- 1 Managers have to decide how best to allocate the human, physical and capital available to them.
- 2 Managers – logically – have to make sure that the jobs and tasks given to their subordinates are
- 3 There is no point in objectives if you don't them to your staff.
- 4 Managers have to their subordinates, and to measure, and try to improve, their
- 5 Managers have to check whether objectives and targets are being
- 6 A top manager whose performance is unsatisfactory can be dismissed by the company's
- 7 Top managers are responsible for the that will allow a company to adapt to a changing world.

1d Vocabulary

The text contains a number of common verb-noun partnerships (e.g. *achieve objectives*, *deal with crises*, and so on).

Match up these verbs and nouns to make common collocations.

allocate	decisions
communicate	information
develop	jobs
make	objectives
measure	people
motivate	performance
perform	resources
set	strategies
supervise	subordinates

1e Writing

There seem to be real-life managers just as bad as Mr Farvis in the cartoon on page 14.

These are (apparently) genuine memos circulated by managers in American companies:

As of tomorrow, employees will only be able to access the building using individual security cards. Pictures will be taken next Wednesday and employees will receive their cards in two weeks.

What I need is a list of specific unknown problems we will encounter.

We know that communication is a problem in this company but we are not going to discuss it with the employees.

This project is so important, we can't let things that are more important interfere with it.

Teamwork is a lot of people doing what I say.

Now imagine that you are a stupid manager (no – of course it will never really happen to you!) and write the most ridiculous memo that you can think of to all company staff.

MEMO

FROM:

TO: All Employees

SUBJECT:

2 Meetings

'One can either work or meet. One cannot do both at the same time.'

(Peter Drucker: *An Introductory View of Management*)

What do you think Peter Drucker means by this comment?

In your experience – at work, or doing group projects at college – is this true?

How much of the working week do you think managers should spend in meetings?

2a Reading

Read the computer journalist Robert X. Cringely's description of the management style at IBM. Is he positive or negative about IBM's working culture?

- 5 Every IBM employee's ambition is apparently to become a manager, and the company helps them out in this area by making management the company's single biggest business. IBM executives don't design products and write software; they manage the design and writing of software. They go to meetings. So much effort, in fact, is put into managing all the managers who are managing things that hardly anyone is left over to do the real work. This means that most IBM hardware and nearly all IBM software is written or designed by the lowest level of people in the company – trainees. Everyone else is too busy going to meetings, managing, or learning to be a
- 10 manager, so there is little chance to include any of their technical expertise in IBM products.

Go back and read that last paragraph over again, because that's why IBM products often aren't very competitive.

- 15 IBM has layers and layers of management to check and verify each decision as it is made and amended. The safety net is so big at IBM that it is hard to make a bad decision. In fact, it is hard to make any decision at all, which turns out to be the company's greatest problem and the source of its ultimate downfall (remember, you read it here first).

(Robert X. Cringely: *Accidental Empires*)

2b Comprehension

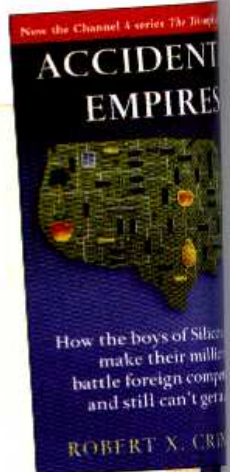
Explain in your own words exactly what Robert Cringely means in the following sentences.

- 1 Every IBM employee's ambition is apparently to become a manager.
- 2 IBM makes management the company's single biggest business.
- 3 IBM executives manage the design and writing of software.
- 4 IBM products often aren't very competitive.
- 5 The safety net is so big at IBM that it is hard to make a bad decision.
- 6 This will be the source of the company's ultimate downfall.

2c Vocabulary

Find words in the text that mean the same as the words or expressions below.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 seemingly | 6 knowledge and skill |
| 2 computer programs | 7 levels or strata |
| 3 work, time and energy | 8 to make certain that something is true |
| 4 computers (and other machines) | 9 corrected or slightly changed |
| 5 young workers still learning their jobs | 10 collapse or failure |



3 The retail sector

You will hear part of an interview with Steve Moody, the manager of the Marks & Spencer store in Cambridge, England. What do you know about Marks & Spencer? What do they sell?

3a Listening

Listen to the first part of the recording, in which Steve Moody describes the role and responsibilities of a store manager. Which of the following tasks is he responsible for?

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 designing the store and its layout | 8 maintaining a pleasant working environment |
| 2 displaying the merchandise | 9 motivating staff |
| 3 employing the sales staff | 10 organizing the day-to-day logistics |
| 4 ensuring the safety of staff and customers | 11 pricing the merchandise |
| 5 establishing the company's principles | 12 running 40 out of 280 stores |
| 6 getting commitment from the staff | 13 selecting the merchandise |
| 7 increasing profits | 14 supervising the day-to-day running of the store |
| | 15 training staff |



▶ Steve Moody, the manager of a Marks & Spencer store

3b Listening

Listen to the second part of the recording, and answer these questions.

- 1 Why are Marks & Spencer's store managers limited in giving accountability to their staff and delegating responsibilities?
- 2 What do they concentrate on instead?

3c Listening

Listen to the third part of the recording, and answer the following questions.

- 1 Steve Moody mentions two kinds of regular meetings. The first is weekly meetings for management and supervisory staff. What is the second kind of meeting called?
- 2 Who attends them?
- 3 What are they designed to achieve?
- 4 What kind of problems cannot be dealt with by meetings?
- 5 How are such problems dealt with?

3d Discussion

After reading and hearing about management, do you think you have the right skills to be a manager? Would you be able, for example, to set objectives, motivate and coordinate the staff, and manage a department store, or a computer manufacturer?

Unit 3 | Company structure

1 How are companies organized?

1a Discussion

If you are still studying:

- what kind of organization do you want to work for?
- in which department? (e.g. production, finance, accounting, marketing, sales, human resources)
- do you think it will later be possible to change departments?
- what do you think your first position will be?
- do you expect to have one immediate boss, to work for more than one superior, or to be part of a team?

If you are already working:

- what is your function or job title?
- what are you responsible *for*?
- who are you responsible *to*? (who do you report to?)
- does anybody report to you?
- what other units, departments or divisions do you regularly have to work with?
- what other departments do you occasionally have conflicts with?

1b Vocabulary

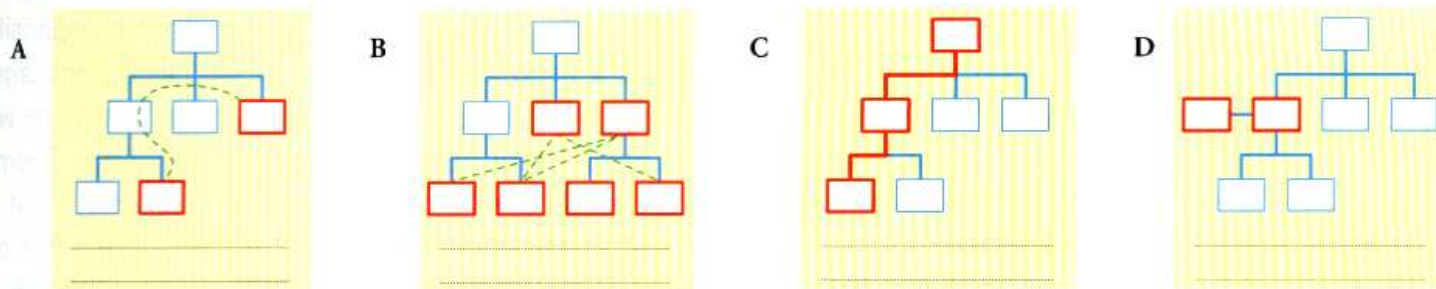
These are some basic words used in relation to company organization. Match them up with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|--------------------|---|
| 1 autonomous | A a system of authority with different levels, one above the other |
| 2 decentralization | B a specific activity in a company, e.g. production, marketing, finance |
| 3 function | C independent, able to take decisions without consulting a higher authority |
| 4 hierarchy | D people working under someone else in a hierarchy |
| 5 line authority | E dividing an organization into decision-making units that are not centrally controlled |
| 6 report to | F the power to give instructions to people at the level below in the chain of command |
| 7 subordinates | G to be responsible to someone and to take instructions from him or her |

1c Reading

Read the text below, about different ways of organizing companies, and then label the diagrams, according to which of these they illustrate:

line structure matrix structure functional structure staff position



COMPANY STRUCTURE

Most organizations have a hierarchical or pyramidal structure, with one person or a group of people at the top, and an increasing number of people below them at each successive level. There is a clear line or chain of command running down the pyramid. All the people in the organization know what decisions they are able to make, who their superior (or boss) is (to whom they report), and who their immediate subordinates are (to whom they can give instructions).

Some people in an organization have colleagues who help them: for example, there might be an Assistant to the Marketing Manager. This is known as a staff position: its holder has no line authority, and is not integrated into the chain of command, unlike, for example, the Assistant Marketing Manager, who is number two in the marketing department.

Yet the activities of most companies are too complicated to be organized in a single hierarchy. Shortly before the first world war, the French industrialist Henry Fayol organized his coal-mining business according to the functions that it had to carry out. He is generally credited with inventing functional organization. Today, most large manufacturing organizations have a functional structure, including (among others) production, finance, marketing, sales, and personnel or human resources departments. This means, for example, that the production and marketing departments cannot take financial decisions without consulting the finance department.

Functional organization is efficient, but there are two standard criticisms. Firstly, people are usually more concerned with the success of their department than that of the company, so there are permanent battles between, for example, finance and marketing, or marketing and production, which have incompatible goals. Secondly, separating functions is unlikely to encourage innovation.

Yet for a large organization manufacturing a range of products, having a single production department is generally inefficient. Consequently, most large companies are decentralized, following the model of Alfred Sloan, who divided General Motors into separate operating divisions in 1920. Each division had its own engineering, production and sales departments, made a different category of car (but with some overlap, to encourage internal competition), and was expected to make a profit.

Businesses that cannot be divided into autonomous divisions with their own markets

can *simulate* decentralization, setting up divisions that deal with each other using internally determined transfer prices. Many banks, for example, have established commercial, corporate, private banking, international and investment divisions.

An inherent problem of hierarchies is that people at lower levels are unable to make important decisions, but have to pass on responsibility to their boss. One solution to this is matrix management, in which people report to more than one superior. For example, a product manager with an idea might be able to deal directly with managers responsible for a certain market segment and for a geographical region, as well as the managers responsible for the traditional functions of finance, sales and production. This is one way of keeping authority at lower levels, but it is not necessarily a very efficient one. Thomas Peters and Robert Waterman, in their well-known book *In Search of Excellence*, insist on the necessity of pushing authority and autonomy down the line, but they argue that one element – probably the product – must have priority; four-dimensional matrices are far too complex.

A further possibility is to have wholly autonomous, temporary groups or teams that are responsible for an entire project, and are split up as soon as it is successfully completed. Teams are often not very good for decision-making, and they run the risk of relational problems, unless they are small and have a lot of self-discipline. In fact they still require a definite leader, on whom their success probably depends.

1d Comprehension

Which of the following three paragraphs most accurately summarizes the text, and why?

First summary:

Although most organizations are hierarchical, with a number of levels, and a line of command running from the top to the bottom, hierarchies should be avoided because they make decision-making slow and difficult. A solution to this problem is matrix management, which allows people from the traditional functional departments of production, finance, marketing, sales, etc. to work together in teams. Another solution is decentralization: the separation of the organization into competing autonomous divisions.

Second summary:

Most business organizations have a hierarchy consisting of several levels and a clear line of command. There may also be staff positions that are not integrated into the hierarchy. The organization might also be divided into functional departments, such as production, finance, marketing, sales and personnel. Larger organizations are often further divided into autonomous divisions, each with its own functional sections. More recent organizational systems include matrix management and teams, both of which combine people from different functions and keep decision-making at lower levels.

Third summary:

Most businesses are organized as hierarchies, with a clear chain of command: a boss who has subordinates, who in turn have their own subordinates, and so on. The hierarchy might be internally divided into functional departments. A company offering a large number of products or services might also be subdivided into autonomous divisions. Communication among divisions can be improved by the introduction of matrix management or teams.

1e Discussion

The text mentions the often incompatible goals of the finance, marketing and production (or operations) departments. Classify the following strategies according to which departments would probably favour them.

- 1 a factory working at full capacity
- 2 a large advertising budget
- 3 a large sales force earning high commission
- 4 a standard product without optional features
- 5 a strong cash balance
- 6 a strong market share for new products
- 7 generous credit facilities for customers
- 8 high profit margins
- 9 large inventories to make sure that products are available
- 10 low research and development spending
- 11 machines that give the possibility of making various different products
- 12 self-financing (using retained earnings rather than borrowing)

1f Describing company structure

This is an example of part of a company organization chart:



The most common verbs for describing structure are:

consists of
is composed of

contains
is made up of

includes
is divided into

- e.g. The company consists of five main departments.
The marketing department is made up of three units.
The sales department is divided into two sections.

Other verbs frequently used to describe company organization include:

to be in charge of
to support or to be supported by
to be accountable to

to be responsible for
to assist or to be assisted by

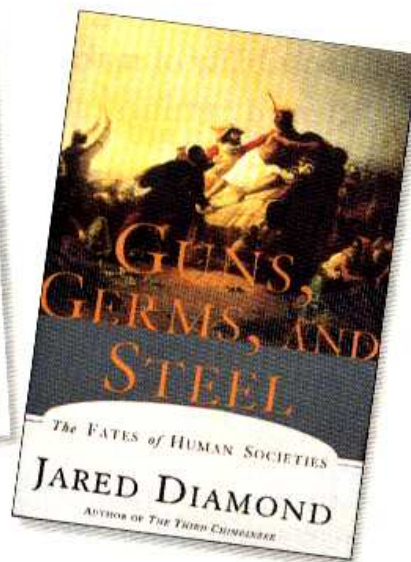
- e.g. The marketing department is in charge of the sales force.
The marketing department is responsible for advertising, sales promotions and market research.
The five department heads are accountable to the Managing Director.

Now write a description of either the organization chart above, or a company you know, in about 100–150 words.

2 Competition and communication



 Jared Diamond



Jared Diamond is the author of *Guns, Germs, and Steel: A Short History of Everybody for the Last 13,000 Years*, in which he investigates why human history evolved differently on different continents.

You will hear a short extract from a talk by Professor Diamond called 'How to get rich', in which, drawing on the history of human societies, he makes a suggestion concerning the best way to organize a business.

2a Vocabulary

Match up the words on the left with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1 industrial belt | A a company's ways of working and thinking |
| 2 wealth | B alone, placed in a position away from others |
| 3 productivity | C an area with lots of industrial companies, around the edge of a city |
| 4 corporate ethos | D breaking something up into pieces |
| 5 collaboration | E the amount of output produced (in a certain period, using a certain number of inputs) |
| 6 insulated or isolated | F the products of economic activity |
| 7 fragmentation | G working together and sharing ideas |

2b Listening

Listen to Jared Diamond, and then answer question 1. Listen a second time to check your answers, and then do question 2.

- 1 Which of these do the part-sentences 1–8 refer to?
- A Route 128 (the industrial belt around Boston, Massachusetts)
 - B Silicon Valley (the high-tech companies in the area between San Francisco and San José, California)
 - C IBM
 - D Microsoft
- 1 has lots of companies that are secretive, and don't communicate or collaborate with each other
- 2 has lots of companies that compete with each other but communicate ideas and information
- 3 has always had lots of semi-independent units competing within the same company, while communicating with each other
- 4 is organized in an unusual but very effective way
- 5 is currently the centre of innovation
- 6 used to have insulated groups that did not communicate with each other
- 7 used to lead the industrial world in scientific creativity and imagination
- 8 was very successful, then less successful, and is now innovative again because it changed the way it was organized

- 2 Working in pairs, rearrange the following part-sentences to make up a short paragraph summarizing Diamond's ideas about the best form of business organization.
- a and regularly engage staff who have worked for your competitors.
 - b are at a disadvantage,
 - c because most groups of people get
 - d but also communicate with each other quite freely.
 - e creativity, innovation, and wealth,
 - f into a number of groups which compete
 - g Isolated companies or groups
 - h most of their ideas and innovations from the outside.
 - i So in order to maximize productivity,
 - j You should also exchange ideas and information with other companies,
 - k you should break up your business

3 Big and small companies

3a Discussion

Do you, or would you, prefer to work for a big or a small company or organization? Why? What are the advantages of each?

Read the following statements, and decide whether they are about the advantages of working in a big or small company.

- 1 If you have problems with your colleagues you can always change departments.
- 2 The atmosphere is friendlier and you know everyone.
- 3 You are often responsible for a variety of different tasks.
- 4 You can actually see the result of your contribution to the company.
- 5 You can be proud of working for a company with a national or international reputation.
- 6 You can become more specialized in your work.
- 7 You can deal with problems face-to-face.
- 8 You have a better possibility of realizing your potential.
- 9 You have more independence, and you don't always have to wait for permission from a superior.
- 10 You may be able to go and work in a foreign subsidiary.
- 11 You often get greater freedom, flexibility and openness to change.
- 12 You'll probably get a slightly higher salary.
- 13 You're unlikely to be fired in a sudden reorganization or downsizing.
- 14 Your company will be in a better position in an economic downturn or recession.

3b Writing

You are probably familiar with many or most of these conjunctions and connectors. The words or phrases in each line have similar meanings.

To give an illustration or example of something just mentioned:

e.g. (for example) for instance [e.g. comes from the Latin *exempli gratia*]

To give another argument or example:

furthermore* moreover*

To clarify (to express the same thing in different words):

in other words i.e. (that is) [i.e. comes from the Latin *id est*]

To express reasons, and cause and effect:

as	because	since
because of	due to	owing to
consequently*	therefore*	thus*

To express contrast:

though	although	even though*
however*	yet*	nevertheless*
on the contrary*	on the other hand*	conversely*

* These words are usually used at the beginning of a sentence, or at the beginning of a clause, after a comma.

Now write a short summary of your opinions regarding big and small companies, explaining which you prefer to work for (or would prefer to work for in the future).

Give several reasons – either your own, or from the list in 3a – but also mention various counter-arguments.

For example:

In a big company you can ... **Furthermore**, big companies allow you to ... , **because** of **Consequently**, you can **On the other hand**, it is true that if you work for a small company, you can **Nevertheless**, I prefer big companies because ... , **even though** ... can be a disadvantage.

Unit 4 Work and motivation

1 Work and responsibility



"How would you guys feel if I gave all this up and went on Social Security?"

1a Vocabulary

The following sentences define some basic words about work. Which ones?

- 1 To inspire, to induce, to give a reason or incentive to someone to do something.
A motivate B promote C provoke
- 2 A person employed by someone else, working for money.
A earner B employee C employer
- 3 Relations between employers and employees, managers and workers, management and unions.
A human relations B labour relations C labour unions
- 4 Having control of something as part of your job.
A command B power C responsibility
- 5 Money paid (per hour or day or week) to manual workers.
A earnings B salary C wages
- 6 A fixed regular payment made by employers, usually monthly, for professional or office work.
A earnings B salary C wages
- 7 Advantages that come with a job, apart from wages or salary.
A benefits or perks B profits C supplements
- 8 To be raised to a higher rank or better job.
A motivation B promotion C sales promotion
- 9 Knowing that there is little risk of losing one's job.
A bureaucracy B job safety C job security
- 10 Having particular abilities, acquired by training.
A educated B skilled C talented

1b Discussion



Which of the following statements seem to you to be generally true?

- 1 People dislike work and avoid it if they can.
- 2 Work is necessary to people's psychological well-being.
- 3 People avoid responsibility and would rather be told what to do.
- 4 People are motivated mainly by money.
- 5 Most people are far more creative and ingenious than their employers realize.
- 6 People are motivated by anxiety about their security.
- 7 People want to be interested in their work and, given the right conditions, they will enjoy it.
- 8 Under the right conditions, most people will accept responsibility and want to realize their own potential.

1c Reading

You may have noticed that the statements above can be separated into two groups reflecting two very different ways in which employers can treat their employees. These two approaches were summarized by a well-known American theorist of the psychology of work, Douglas McGregor, who named them Theory X and Theory Y. Read the following text and then classify the statements above according to which theory they support.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Theory								

THEORY X AND THEORY Y

In *The Human Side of Enterprise*, Douglas McGregor outlined two opposing theories of work and motivation. What he calls Theory X is the traditional approach to workers and working which assumes that people are lazy and dislike work, and that they have to be both threatened (for example, with losing their job) and rewarded. It assumes that most people are incapable of taking responsibility for themselves and have to be looked after. Theory Y, on the contrary, assumes that people have a psychological need to work and want achievement and responsibility.

Many people assume that Theory Y is more 'progressive' and an advance on Theory X, but later theorists argued that it makes much greater demands on both workers and managers than McGregor realized. Abraham Maslow, for example, spent a year studying a Californian company that used Theory Y, and concluded that its demands for responsibility and achievement are excessive for many people. He pointed out that there are always weak and vulnerable people, with little self-discipline, who need protection against the burden of responsibility. Even strong and healthy people need the security of order and direction. Managers cannot simply substitute Theory Y for Theory X. They have to replace the security provided by Theory X with a different structure of security and certainty.

1d Summarizing

Read the text again and complete the following sentences, using your own words as much as possible.

- 1 According to Theory X, employers have to threaten workers because . . .
- 2 According to Theory Y, employers should give their workers responsibilities because . . .
- 3 Maslow criticized Theory Y because . . .
- 4 Maslow argued that even though they might want to be given responsibilities at work . . .

1e Discussion

One of the most important functions of a manager is to motivate the employees under his or her authority. But *how*? What kind of things motivate *you*? Which of the following factors have been or will be important for you in your choice of a job?

Classify them in order of importance.

- | | |
|--|---|
| ● good administration and good labour relations | ● job security |
| ● good working conditions: enough space, light, heat and time, not too much noise, and so on | ● a challenging, interesting and creative job |
| ● an adequate wage or salary, and benefits such as paid holidays, sick pay, a pension, and so on | ● responsibility |
| | ● contact with people |
| | ● opportunities to travel |
| | ● holidays |

Are there any other important factors that are not listed here?

1f Writing

Write a short account (about 200 words) of the factors that have been or will be important for you in your choice of a job.

1g Reading

Another well-known theorist of the psychology of work, Frederick Herzberg, has argued that many of the features listed above do *not* in fact motivate people. Read the following text and find out why.

'SATISFIERS' AND 'MOTIVATORS'

It is logical to suppose that things like good labour relations, good working conditions, good wages and benefits, and job security motivate workers. But in *Work and the Nature of Man*, Frederick Herzberg argued that such conditions do not motivate workers. They are merely 'satisfiers' or, more importantly, 'dissatisfiers' where they do not exist. 'Motivators', on the contrary, include things such as having a challenging and interesting job, recognition and responsibility, promotion, and so on.

However, even with the development of computers and robotics, there are and always will be plenty of boring, mindless, repetitive and mechanical jobs in all three sectors of the economy, and lots of unskilled people who have to do them.

So how do managers motivate people in such jobs? One solution is to give them some responsibilities, not as individuals but as part of a team. For example, some supermarkets combine office staff, the people who fill the shelves, and the people who work on the checkout tills into a team and let them decide what product lines to stock, how to display them, and so on. Other employers ensure that people in repetitive jobs change them every couple of hours, as doing four different repetitive jobs a day is better than doing only one. Many people now talk about the importance of a company's shared values or corporate culture, with which all the staff can identify: for example, being the best hotel chain, or hamburger restaurant chain, or airline, or making the best, the safest, the most user-friendly, the most ecological or the most reliable products in a particular field. Such values are more likely to motivate workers than financial targets, which ultimately only concern a few people. Unfortunately, there is only a limited number of such goals to go round, and by definition, not all the competing companies in an industry can seriously claim to be the best.

1h Summarizing

Read the text again and complete the following sentences, using your own words as much as possible.

- 1 Herzberg suggested that good labour relations and working conditions . . .
- 2 According to Herzberg, the kind of things that motivate . . .
- 3 The problem with saying that only challenging, interesting and responsible jobs are motivating is that . . .
- 4 Ways of motivating people in unskilled jobs include . . .
- 5 The problem with trying to motivate workers by the belief that their company is the best is that . . .

2 Motivating staff

Do people enjoy working on a cash till?



You will hear Steve Moody, the manager of the Marks & Spencer store in Cambridge, talking about how he and the company try to motivate staff.

2a Listening

Listen to the first part of the interview and answer the following questions.

- Which of the following things does Steve Moody say? If the statements do not match what Moody says, what *does* he actually say?
 - People require an acceptable salary.
 - People need a nice working environment.
 - People must understand what they are supposed to do.
 - People must appreciate their boss and their colleagues.
 - People must not be expected to do the same thing lots of times.
- What is the reason he gives why some of his staff prefer working on the till or cash register to other tasks?
- What is the advantage of this for the store?
- What are the other two tasks he mentions that are equally important in any store?
- Steve Moody says that the work of management involves 'tailoring individuals' needs and abilities to the operational needs of the store'. Give another word for *tailoring*.
- Why does M&S also need staff who like to perform all sorts of different tasks?

2b Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview, about the perks M&S give their staff.

- Make a list of five or six factors that Steve Moody says motivate M&S staff.
- What does he say is the effect of giving staff an annual bonus shortly before Christmas?

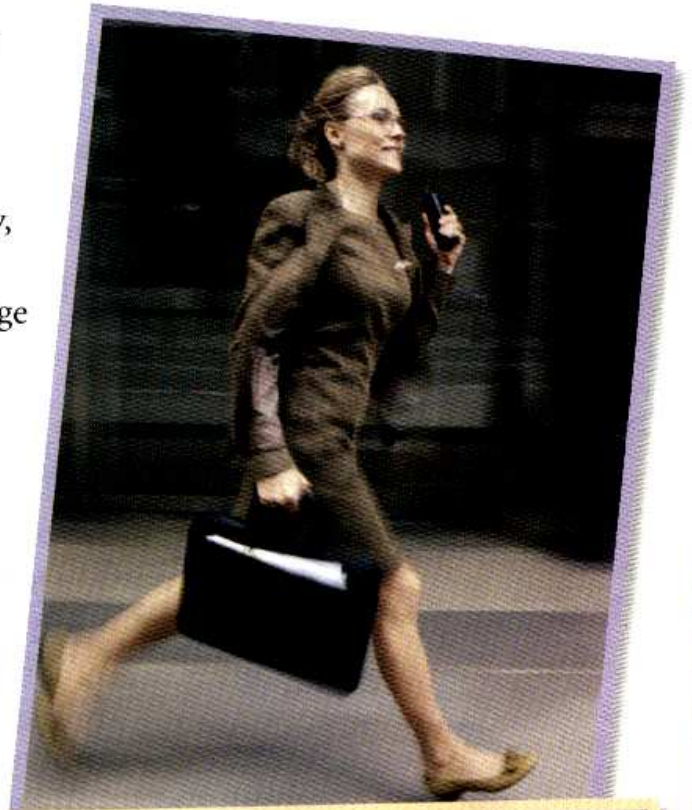
2c Discussion

- 1 Does what Steve Moody says coincide with the views of Frederick Herzberg that you read about above? What about the views of Douglas McGregor?
- 2 In *your* working experience, even if it is only Saturday or temporary summer holiday jobs, have your supervisors seemed to believe Theory X or Theory Y?

2d Case study: Motivation

According to what you have read and heard, how would you attempt to motivate people with the following positions?

- a bus driver in a big city, who has to work irregular hours, including early morning, evening, and night shifts
- a nurse who works with seriously ill children
- a sales representative for a pharmaceutical company, who visits hospitals and doctors
- a manual worker in the Printing House at Cambridge University Press
- a shepherd (as in the cartoon on page 28)



Would any of the following suggestions be appropriate? If not, what else can you suggest?

- building sports facilities (a gymnasium, tennis courts, etc.)
- establishing a profit-sharing programme
- giving longer paid holidays (such as an extra day for every year worked over ten years)
- giving a company car
- offering career training
- offering early retirement
- paying a higher salary
- paying productivity bonuses
- reducing the working week (e.g. to 35 hours)
- setting up a nursery for workers' pre-school age children
- spending some money on decorating the organization's premises (with plants, pictures, etc.)
- subsidizing the staff canteen

2e Vocabulary

Use the words in the box once each to complete the paragraph below. Notice that the stressed syllable changes in this group of words.

<i>Verb</i>	<i>Nouns</i>	<i>Adjectives</i>
pro'duce	'product pro'duction produc'tivity pro'ducer 'produce	pro'ductive 'unpro'ductive

A few years ago, Harry Coe's, a large (1) of tinned food
 (2), decided that some of their workers were not
 (3) enough. Much of the work of preparing fruit and vegetables
 was done on rows of tables rather than on a (4) line. So they
 decided to introduce a piecework system, whereby workers got paid according to
 the amount of work they completed. The company thought that this would
 motivate previously (5) workers, and thereby increase
 (6) Yet the new pay scheme did not (7) the
 results they expected: after six months they were still processing the same amount of
 agricultural (8) , but there was a lot of dissatisfaction among the
 workers who were now all earning different amounts of money.

Unit 5 Management and cultural diversity

1 Cultural attitudes

1a Discussion

Multinational companies can either attempt to use similar management methods in all their foreign subsidiaries, or adapt their methods to the local culture in each country or continent. Which procedure do you think is the most efficient?

Do you think the culture of your country is similar enough to those of neighbouring countries to have the same management techniques? Or are there countries nearby where people have very different attitudes to work, hierarchy, organization, and so on?

1b Discussion

A Dutch researcher, Fons Trompenaars, and his associates, have asked nearly 15,000 business people in over 50 countries a number of questions which reveal differing cultural beliefs and attitudes to work. Here are five of them, adapted from *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*. They concern ways of working, individuals and groups, rules and personal friendships, and so on. What are your answers to the questions?

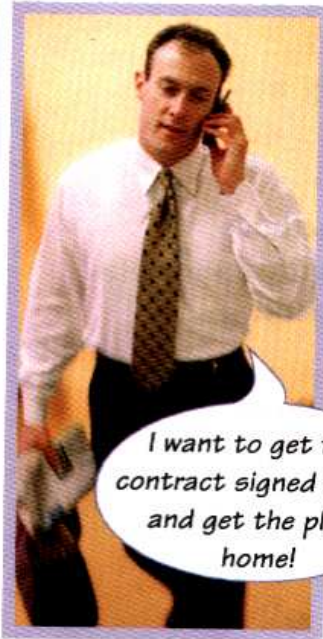
- 1 If you had to choose, would you say that a company is (a) a system designed to perform functions and tasks in an efficient way, using machines and people, or (b) a group of people whose functioning depends on social relations and the way people work together?
- 2 What is the main reason for having an organizational structure in a company? (a) So that everyone knows who has authority over whom, or (b) so that everyone knows how functions are allocated and coordinated?
- 3 Will (a) the quality of an individual's life improve if he or she has as much freedom as possible and the maximum opportunity to develop personally, or (b) the quality of life for everyone improve if individuals are continuously taking care of their fellow human beings, even if this limits individual freedom and development?
- 4 A defect is discovered in a production facility. It was caused by negligence by one of the members of a team. Would you say that (a) the person causing the defect by negligence is the one responsible, or (b) because he or she is working in a team the responsibility should be carried by the whole group?
- 5 Imagine that you are a passenger in a car driven by a close friend who hits and quite seriously injures a pedestrian while driving at least 25 kilometres an hour too fast in town. There are no other witnesses. Your friend's lawyer says that it will help him a lot if you testify that he was driving within the speed limit. Should your friend expect you to do this?

2 Managing multinationals

2a Discussion

What nationalities could the managers below typically be?

a)



b)



c)



e)



d)



2b Reading

Read the text below, and see if your suggestions above coincide with the nationalities mentioned.

CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT

Managing a truly global multinational company would obviously be much simpler if it required only one set of corporate objectives, goals, policies, practices, products and services. But local differences often make this impossible. The conflict between globalization and localization has led to the invention of the word 'glocalization'. Companies that want to be successful in foreign markets have to be aware of the local cultural characteristics that affect the way business is done.

A fairly obvious cultural divide that has been much studied is the one between, on the one hand, the countries of North America and north-west Europe, where management is largely based on analysis, rationality, logic and systems, and, on the other, the Latin cultures of southern Europe and South America, where personal relations, intuition, emotion and sensitivity are of much greater importance.

The largely Protestant cultures on both sides of the North Atlantic (Canada, the USA, Britain, the Netherlands, Germany, Scandinavia) are essentially individualist. In such cultures, status has to be achieved. You don't automatically respect people just because they've been in a company for 30 years. A young, dynamic, aggressive manager with an MBA (a Master in Business Administration degree) can quickly rise in the hierarchy. In

most Latin and Asian cultures, on the contrary, status is automatically accorded to the boss, who is more likely to be in his fifties or sixties than in his thirties. This is particularly true in Japan, where companies traditionally have a policy of promotion by seniority. A 50-year-old Japanese manager, or a Greek or Italian or Chilean one, would quite simply be offended by having to negotiate with an aggressive, well-educated, but inexperienced American or German 20 years his junior. He would also want to take the time to get to know the person with whom he was negotiating, and would not appreciate an assertive American who wanted to sign a deal immediately and take the next plane home.

In northern cultures, the principle of pay-for-performance often successfully motivates salespeople. The more you sell, the more you get paid. But the principle might well be resisted in more collectivist cultures, and in countries where rewards and promotion are expected to come with age and experience. Trompenaars gives the example of a sales rep in an Italian subsidiary of a US multinational company who was given a huge quarterly bonus under a new policy imposed by head office. His sales – which had been high for years – declined dramatically during the following three months. It was later discovered that he was deliberately trying not to sell more than any of his colleagues, so as not to reveal their inadequacies. He was also desperate not to earn more than his boss, which he thought would be an unthinkable humiliation that would force the boss to resign immediately.

Trompenaars also reports that Singaporean and Indonesian managers objected that pay-for-performance caused salesmen to pressure customers into buying products they didn't really need, which was not only bad for long term business relations, but quite simply unfair and ethically wrong.

Another example of an American idea that doesn't work well in Latin countries is matrix management. The task-oriented logic of matrix management conflicts with the principle of loyalty to the all-important line superior, the functional boss. You can't have two bosses any more than you can have two fathers. André Laurent, a French researcher, has said that in his experience, French managers would rather see an organization die than tolerate a system in which a few subordinates have to report to two bosses.

In discussing people's relationships with their boss and their colleagues and friends, Trompenaars distinguishes between universalists and particularists. The former believe that rules are extremely important; the latter believe that personal relationships and friendships should take precedence. Consequently, each group thinks that the other is corrupt. Universalists say that particularists 'cannot be trusted because they will always help their friends', while the second group says of the first 'you cannot trust them; they would not even help a friend'. According to Trompenaars' data, there are many more particularists in Latin and Asian countries than in Australia, the USA, Canada, or north-west Europe.

2c Comprehension

- 1 How would you explain the concept of 'glocalization'?
- 2 Why might a 50-year-old Japanese manager be offended if he had to negotiate with or report to a well-educated but inexperienced 30-year-old American?
- 3 Why was the American concept of pay-for-performance unpopular in Italy, and in Asia, in Trompenaars' example?
- 4 Why do universalists disapprove of particularists, and vice versa?

2d Vocabulary

Find words in the text which mean the following.

- 1 the use of reasoning rather than emotions or beliefs
- 2 understanding or knowing without consciously using reason
- 3 respect, prestige or importance given to someone
- 4 having a higher rank because one is older
- 5 to have hurt feelings because someone is being disrespectful
- 6 money or something else given in recognition of good work
- 7 additional money given for better work or increased productivity
- 8 a feeling of shame and loss of dignity or self-esteem
- 9 to give up a job or position
- 10 according to accepted moral standards

3 You and your culture

3a Discussion: You and your influences

- 1 Which of the following do you think have been the most important influences on you? Do you think the same is true of most people?
 - nature: your genes or DNA, the characteristics you inherited from your parents and were born with, your emotional and physical make-up
 - your family environment in early life
 - your friends and social life, the things you do in your free time
 - primary or secondary school, teachers, and what you learnt
 - higher education: college, university, teachers, colleagues, the subjects you studied (or are studying)
 - your job
 - the culture of your particular company
 - your colleagues: the people in your team or department
 - your colleagues: the kind of people who work in your specific area of work
 - the characteristics that are considered typical of people from your geographical region
 - the characteristics that are considered typical of people from your country, arising from geography, climate, history, religion, the political, social and economic system, and so on
- 2 Do you believe that it is possible to sum up national characteristics in a few words? Is there usually some (or a lot of) truth in such stereotypes? Or, on the contrary, do you find such stereotyping dangerous?

3b Discussion: Attitudes to work

If you already have, or have had, a job, use that job and company to answer these questions. If you are still studying, answer these questions hypothetically: which type of organization would you like to work for? (Some of these questions refer back to Units 3 and 4. Remember also your answers to the questions in 1a above.)

- 1 Steve Moody talks of 'tailoring individuals' needs and abilities to the operational needs of the store'. For *management* positions, do you think the job or task should be adapted to the person who does it, or should the individual employee adapt to the needs of the job?
- 2 Would you like to work for a company that had a pay-for-performance policy? Does this only work for salespeople, or could it be extended to all jobs?
- 3 Do you like the idea of matrix management, or would you rather report to only one powerful boss?
- 4 Do you (or would you) like to work in a team?

3c Survey

Ask at least 20 people of the same culture the following questions, and see if you get clear answers (e.g. over 60% for either answer).

Do you:

- | | |
|--|--|
| a think your job is the most important thing in your life?
Yes ☐ No ☐ | h prefer impersonal ☐ or personal relationships ☐ with superiors? |
| b like taking individual responsibilities?
Yes ☐ No ☐ | i prefer impersonal ☐ or personal relationships ☐ with subordinates? |
| c like taking risks?
Yes ☐ No ☐ | j prefer to work with your family or other people you have known a long time?
Yes ☐ No ☐ |
| d prefer working individually to working in a group or team?
Yes ☐ No ☐ | k take quite a long time to build up trust in a new business partner?
Yes ☐ No ☐ |
| e prefer having clear rules to making decisions according to the current situation?
Yes ☐ No ☐ | l treat male and female colleagues differently?
Yes ☐ No ☐ |
| f prefer multi-layered ☐ or flat ☐ hierarchies? | m automatically respect older people?
Yes ☐ No ☐ |
| g prefer agreement and consensus ☐ to creative disagreement ☐ at work? | |

3d Discussion: Corporate culture

In your company, or in your country in general, is it acceptable to:

- show that you are emotionally involved in your work?
- make eye contact with hierarchical superiors?
- wear fairly casual clothes to work?
- make jokes in meetings?
- disagree with superiors in meetings?
- occasionally arrive late for work or meetings?
- socialize with superiors and/or subordinates?



3e Discussion: Body language

In your country or culture, is it considered acceptable to:

- gesticulate (make hand and arm movements) while you talk?
- move very close to someone as you talk to them?
- touch someone on the arm as you speak to them?
- blow your nose in public?
- look at someone in the eyes for a long time while talking to them?
- look at someone in the eyes for a long time while they are talking to you?
- laugh loudly at work, and in meetings?

3f Discussion: Going abroad

- 1 Do you read a guidebook before going to a foreign country, especially one where you don't speak the language?
- 2 Are there specific things that you worry about, which it would be useful to have information about before you go? (e.g. How do you get into town from the airport? Do you pay the bus driver, or is there a ticket machine on the bus, or at the bus stop? Do you leave a tip in restaurants? etc.)

3g Writing

Write a brief memo to a foreigner who is going to work in your country on a project lasting several weeks. Give some immediately useful pieces of information (transport, opening hours, etc.), and more general background information about things to do or to avoid doing, referring to some of the questions in the discussion exercises above.

Unit 6 Recruitment

1 Filling a vacancy

1a Vocabulary

Insert the following words in the gaps in the text below.

applicant application application form apply candidate
curriculum vitae or CV (GB) or resume (US) employment agencies
interview job description job vacancies references short-listed

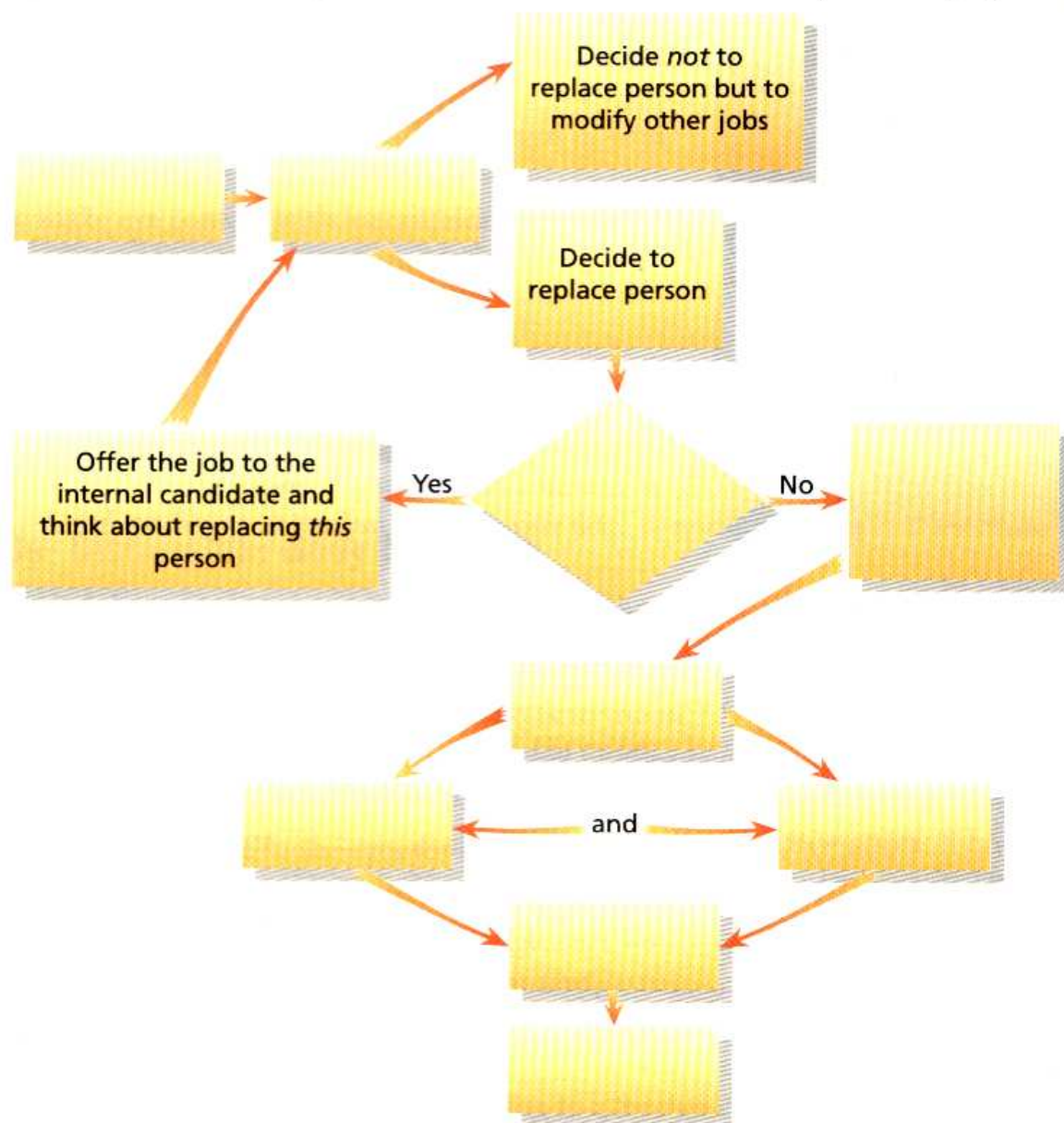
Many people looking for work read the (1) advertised by companies and (2) in newspapers or on the internet. To reply to an advertisement is to (3) for a job. (You become a (4) or an (5)) You write an (6) , or fill in the company's (7) , and send it, along with your (8) and a covering letter. You often have to give the names of two people who are prepared to write (9) for you. If your qualifications and abilities match the (10) , you might be (11) , i.e. selected to attend an (12)

1b Discussion

When employees 'give notice', i.e. inform their employer that they will be leaving the company (as soon as their contract allows), in what order should the company carry out the following steps?

- A either hire a job agency (or for a senior post, a firm of headhunters), or advertise the vacancy
- B establish whether there is an internal candidate who could be promoted (or moved sideways) to the job
- C examine the job description for the post, to see whether it needs to be changed (or indeed, whether the post needs to be filled)
- D follow up the references of candidates who seem interesting
- E invite the short-listed candidates for an interview
- F make a final selection
- G receive applications, curricula vitae and covering letters, and make a preliminary selection (a short-list)
- H try to discover why the person has resigned
- I write to all the other candidates to inform them that they have been unsuccessful

Complete the following chart with the letters A–I from the previous page.



1c Case study: Job applications

One day, you will apply for your first job as a business graduate. Unfortunately, many of your classmates, as well as lots of people you don't know, will probably also apply for the same job. Your experience and qualifications will probably be quite similar to those of most of the other candidates. You will submit a copy of your curriculum vitae (GB) or resume (US). But how do you get on to the preliminary short-list? What kind of things do you think impress companies hiring business graduates?

Which of the following extracts from different CVs (resumes) or application letters do you think would help the candidate to get an interview, and why?

1

Since coming to university I have played in the women's hockey team. We have twice won the national university championship, and are also well-placed this year, with one month of the season still to go.

2

My mother is French, and because my father works for a multinational company, I grew up in four different countries. I did all my schooling in French, but I also speak (and write) fluent Spanish and Portuguese. I can also understand (North African) Arabic, but speak it less well.

3

I realize that my background (qualifications and experience) is probably no better than that of many other applicants, but I am particularly interested in a marketing position in a telecommunications company, because I have collected telephone cards ever since they were first introduced. I have an extensive collection, including cards from 17 different countries.

4

Employment

Saturdays, 1997-99, and full-time July 2000, Right Price food store, West End Avenue (shelf-filling).

July 2001, Port Authority Bus Terminal, 8th Avenue (bus cleaner).

August-September 2001, grape-picking, Napa Valley, California.

November 2001-June 2002, tourist guide at St Patrick's Cathedral, 5th Avenue (Saturdays).

5

I have travelled extensively during my last three summer vacations. In 2000, I travelled around the Mediterranean (Spain, France, Italy, Greece) for ten weeks. In 2001, I went to Florida for a month, and I spent six weeks in Bali in 2002. I have consequently met a great many people from many different cultures, and I am absolutely convinced that this makes me suitable for a position in international marketing, and that your company would have a great deal to gain from employing me.

6



7

As you will see from my CV, I scored an average of 91% in my university examinations (94% at the end of the first year, 87% in my second year, and 92% in my final year exams). I stayed on to do a post-graduate degree in finance and banking, and was encouraged to extend my Master's dissertation into a doctorate, which I have done in the past ten months. I expect to be awarded my PhD in six weeks' time.

8

I have played the piano since the age of five. I won scholarships to summer schools in New York and Switzerland, but at the age of 19 decided to study economics rather than attempt to become a professional musician (since the world is full of good pianists).

1d Curriculum vitae (GB) or Resume (US)

This is a model for a curriculum vitae or resume.

Curriculum vitae	
YOUR NAME	
Your address	Your phone number(s)
	Your e-mail address
	Your date of birth
OBJECTIVE	
WORK EXPERIENCE or PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE	
EDUCATION or QUALIFICATIONS	
COMPUTER SKILLS	
LANGUAGES	
HOBBIES AND INTERESTS	
REFERENCES [or Testimonials (US)]	
The following people can provide references:	

Notes on Curricula vitae

Name: e.g. Robert Louis Stevenson; or Stevenson, Robert Louis; or STEVENSON, Robert Louis.

Date of birth: Write the month, e.g. 11 January 1980, because 11/1 = 11 January (GB) and 1 November (US).

Nationality: Always begin with a capital letter: French, German, Japanese, etc. You can also add **Marital status:** Single or Married.

Objective: e.g. A job in international marketing; A traineeship in trading; Marketing assistant; Account manager; Financial analyst.

Work experience: Give dates (months or years) and name of employer(s). Put the most recent first. Be specific about your duties if they have any relevance to a business career, e.g.

Summer 2002, Office Assistant, Book Antiqua Ltd, Lucida, New Jersey.

The job involved file maintenance, data entry, word processing, proof-reading, customer service, and other clerical and administrative tasks.

Education: List this in reverse order, e.g.

2001–2 Master's Degree in International Management, Bigtown University, Bigtown (expected date of completion July 2002)

1998–2001 Degree in Business Administration, majoring in Finance/Marketing, etc. (sometimes called a Bachelor's Degree)

An English translation of your institution might be Faculty or School of Business Administration and Economics.

Between 14 and 18 or 19 years old you probably attended what is translated as a High School or a Secondary School, where you probably obtained the equivalent of a High School Certificate. Your primary education is probably not important.

Computer skills: e.g.

Working knowledge of Microsoft Office, Word, Excel, Powerpoint, and internet software.

Languages: e.g.

French (mother tongue), good knowledge of German and English, elementary knowledge of Spanish. [Not 'knowledges' with an s.]

Or: Fluent in Spanish and English, some knowledge of French and Italian.

Hobbies and interests: e.g.

Underwater skiing, synchronized sewing, deep-sea football, long-distance cooking, cross-country swimming ...

It is preferable to list hobbies that demonstrate qualities that are relevant to the job you are seeking.

References [or Testimonials (US)]:

The names and addresses (and phone numbers, fax numbers or e-mail addresses) of two referees are often required.

2 Women in management

2a Discussion

Why are there so few women in senior managerial positions?

Should this situation change? If so, do you think it *will* change? How? When?

What advantages or disadvantages would a larger proportion of women in management positions bring to business in general?

Do you support *affirmative action* or *positive discrimination* programmes which attempt to employ women or members of minority groups in preference to equally qualified white male candidates?



"Mr Edwards, this is your secretary, Melissa. When you have a moment, would you run down and get me a regular coffee and a pineapple Danish?"

2b Listening

You will hear Gill Lewis, formerly the Senior Vice-President for Human Resources and Corporate Affairs of Nestlé, talking about the role of women in management. Listen to the interview, and then answer these questions.



 Gill Lewis: a woman in a high managerial position

- 1 Why is Gill Lewis not especially proud of having been British Businesswoman of the Year back in the 1970s?
- 2 What does she mean when she says that during that period she was a great disappointment to the media?
- 3 How exactly does she define the traditional roles of men and women over millennia (thousands of years)?
- 4 Gill Lewis lists at least three areas in which women finishing business studies now have advantages that no previous generation has had, in terms of their husbands (or partners), employers, and their fellow students. What are they?
- 5 What do you think she means when she says that 'employers are going to have to make some allowances'?
- 6 What is her objection to affirmative action programmes?

"Uh-huh. Uh-huh.
And for precisely how
long were you a
hunter-gatherer at
I.B.M.?"



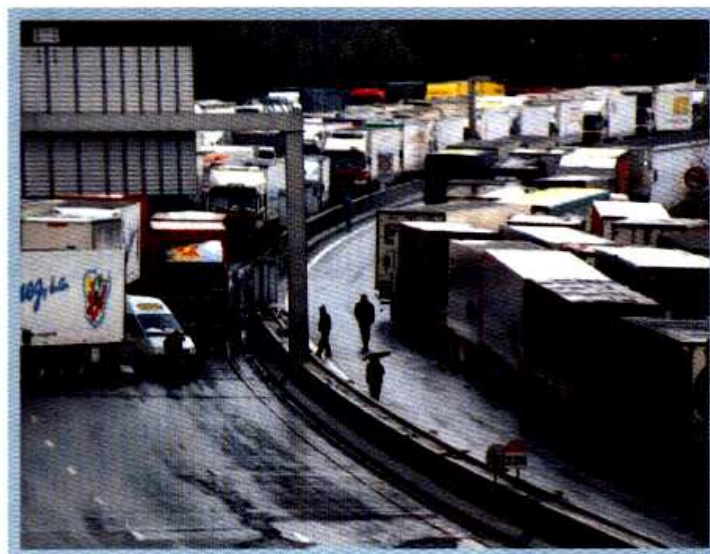
Unit 7 Labour relations

1 Labour unions



▶ A frustrated traveller during a rail strike

▶ Striking but non-unionized French truckers blocking a motorway: who can the government negotiate with?



1a Discussion

What are labour unions or trade unions?

What do they do?

What can they do when dissatisfied?

1b Vocabulary

Match up the words on the left with the definitions on the right.

1 collective bargaining

A a general term for strikes, go-slows, work-to-rules, and so on

2 a strike

B a deliberate reduction in the rate of production, as a protest

3 a go-slow (GB) or slowdown (US)

C a stoppage of work, as a protest against working conditions, low pay, and so on

4 working-to-rule

D negotiations between unions and employers about their members' wages and working conditions

5 industrial action

E to protest outside a factory or other workplace, and try to persuade workers and delivery drivers not to enter

6 to picket

F deliberately obeying every regulation in an organization, which severely disrupts normal operations

1c Listening

Listen to Denis MacShane, a British Member of Parliament for the Labour Party who previously worked for ten years for the International Metal Workers Union, talking about trade unions.

- 1 Summarize briefly what he says about:
 - a) the role or function of unions
 - b) the attitude governments and companies should have in relation to unions
- 2 Now listen again, and complete the following sentences with these words. Listen a third time, if necessary, to check your answers.

dynamic *employees* *employers* *partner* *peace*
represented *role* *sensible* *team-working* *voice*

- 1 Unions are a necessary for the interests of workers.
- 2 In countries like South Korea, or Poland, or South Africa, trade unions have played an enormous political and economic
- 3 As long as have needs that need to be they'll need trade unions.
- 4 employers, that want effective social, and want also a and dynamic economy, should be encouraging trade unions.
- 5 In some of the most successful economies, a strong trade union presence is recognized by and accepted as a by government.
- 3 What do you think MacShane means by the out-of-date *class war* attitude of some unions?
- 4 Do you agree with MacShane's view of the necessity and usefulness of unions?

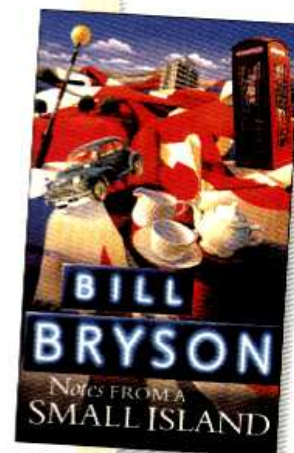
1d Reading

Read the following extract from the American author Bill Bryson's book about Britain, *Notes From a Small Island*, about the newspaper industry in the 1980s, and answer the questions.

Fleet Street, near the City, London's financial district, was where British national newspapers had their offices and printing works until the 1980s, when most of them moved to new premises.

To say that Fleet Street in the early 1980s was out of control barely hints at the scale of matters. The National Graphical Association, the printers' union, decided how many people were needed on each paper (hundreds and hundreds) and how many were to be laid off during a recession (none), and billed the management accordingly. Managements didn't have the power to hire and fire their own print workers, indeed generally didn't know how many print workers they employed. I have before me a headline from December 1985 saying 'Auditors find 300 extra printing staff at Telegraph.' That is to say, the Telegraph was paying salaries to 300 people who didn't actually work there. On top of plump salaries, printers received special bonus payments for handling type of irregular sizes, for dealing with heavily edited copy, for setting words in a language other than English, for the white space at the end of lines. If work was done out of house – for instance, advertising copy that was set outside the building – they were compensated for not doing it. In consequence, many senior printers, with skills no more advanced than you would expect to find in any back-street print shop, enjoyed incomes in the top 2 per cent of British earnings. It was crazy.

- 1 What does this extract suggest about newspaper managements and the printers' trade union at the time?
- 2 What does the first sentence – 'to say that Fleet Street ... was out of control barely hints at the scale of matters' – mean?
- 3 Bryson makes one statement that *probably* isn't true, i.e. is a deliberate exaggeration. Which do you think it is?
- 4 Do you know what happened to the printers at British newspapers soon after the period Bryson is writing about?



Bill Bryson

2 Industrial relations

2a Discussion

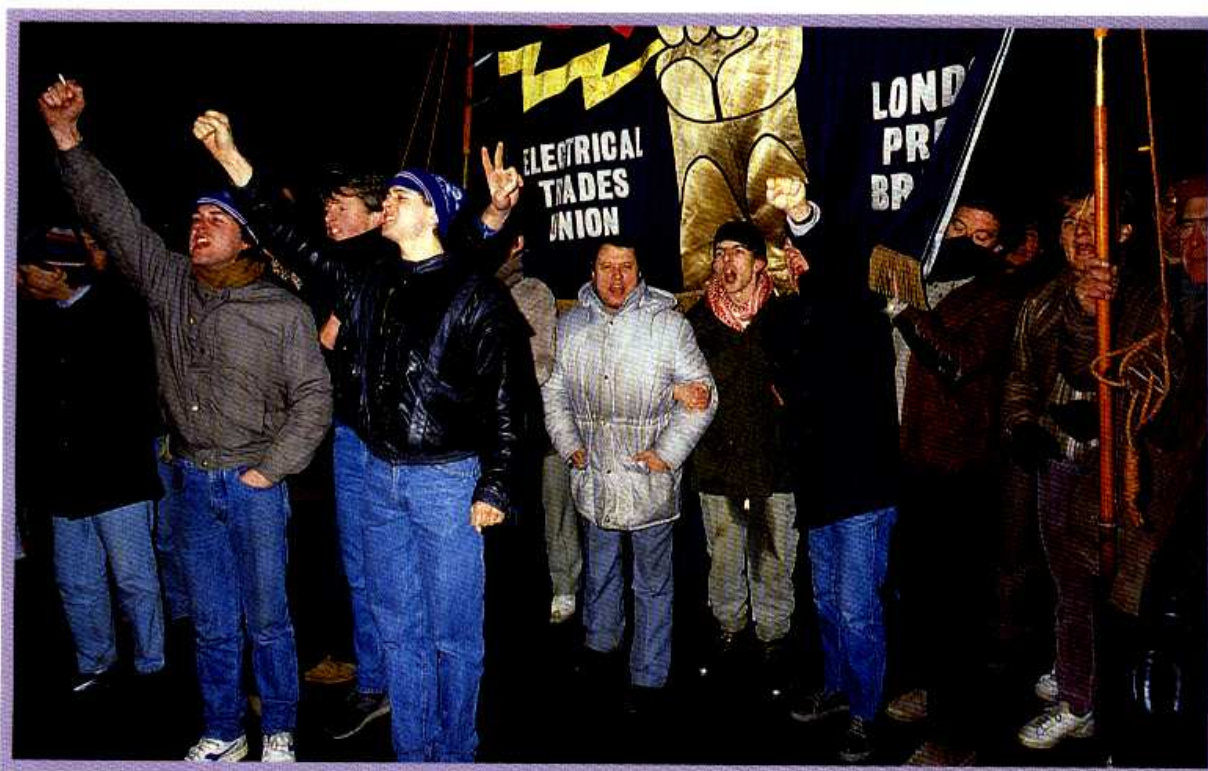
Are labour relations good or bad in your country? Why?

Do you consider that the unions are too strong or not strong enough in your country?

2b Reading

Read the text and then answer the following questions. According to the text:

- 1 What are frequent causes of bad labour relations?
- 2 What have the consequences of labour-market deregulation been?
- 3 Why can these consequences be a problem for management?



WHO NEEDS UNIONS?

Manual and service industry workers are often organized in labour unions, which attempt to ensure fair wages, reasonable working hours and safe working conditions for their members. British unions are known as trade unions because, as in Germany, they are largely organized according to trade or skill: there is an engineers' union, an electricians' union, a train-drivers' union, and so on. In other countries, including France and Italy, unions are largely political: workers in different industries join unions with a particular political position.

Industrial relations tend to be better in countries, industries and companies where communications are good, i.e. where management consults workers on matters that will concern them, where neither side treats the other as an adversary, and when unions do not insist upon the preservation of completely uneconomic jobs and working practices. Although some employers and managers (and political parties) oppose the very existence

of unions – even though, like doctors, lawyers, accountants, and so on, they might themselves belong to a professional association with similar basic aims – many management theorists stress the necessity of unions. In the 1970s, Peter Drucker wrote that 'Management is and has to be a power. Any power needs restraint and control – or else it becomes tyranny. The union serves an essential function in industrial society.* Yet one of the chief objectives of right-wing governments in the 1980s (e.g. in Britain and the USA) was to diminish the power of trade unions, and to deregulate labour markets in accordance with the ideal of free markets.

As a result of deregulation, working conditions in many industries in many countries have worsened, leading to the creation of a great many casual, part-time, unskilled jobs done by non-unionized workers. France, for example, has the lowest number of workers in trade unions in the industrialized world. The unions now represent less than 10% of the French work force, and most of those are in the public sector. The vast majority of French workers seem to have rejected the confrontational politics of the main unions, notably the communist-controlled CGT. Consequently, when the largely non-unionized French lorry drivers blocked all the motorways in the 1990s, striking over the introduction of a new driver's licence with a penalty-point system (and over their working conditions in general), the French government found no one to negotiate with.

In fact, a number of politicians and business leaders are beginning to regret the weakness of unions. Some managers, including Antoine Riboud, the former head of the huge Danone food conglomerate, actively encourage unionization because they insist that a big company needs someone to represent and articulate the needs of the employees and act as a social partner to the employer. But there is clearly a problem if workers believe that the unions are incapable of doing this, and choose not to join them.

* Peter Drucker: *An Introductory View of Management*

2c Vocabulary

Find the words in the text which mean the following.

- 1 people who work with their hands
- 2 a union for workers with a particular type of job
- 3 to ask someone's opinion before making a decision
- 4 an opponent or enemy
- 5 too expensive, wasteful, loss-making
- 6 unlimited and unfairly used power
- 7 ending or relaxing restrictive laws
- 8 areas of the economy run by the local or national government
- 9 hostile, almost aggressive, seeking conflicts
- 10 a large corporation, made up of a group of companies

2d Discussion

Peter Drucker says 'Management is and has to be a power.' What does this mean?

In your opinion, should unions be consulted before management makes decisions about the following?

- manufacturing new products or offering new services
- opening new factories, shops, and so on
- closing existing factories, shops, and so on
- changing working hours
- hiring new staff

Should unions be represented on a company's board of directors, as happens in some countries?

2e Writing

Do some research and write a 100–200 word history of unions in your country. (For example: When were they first founded? Have they always been legal? Have there been periods in which they have been more or less powerful, or important, or necessary, than today?)

Unit 8 Production

At the Graduate School of Business

1 Production decisions

1a Discussion

What particular skills do you think production and operations managers require?

What do you think the objectives of a production department usually are?



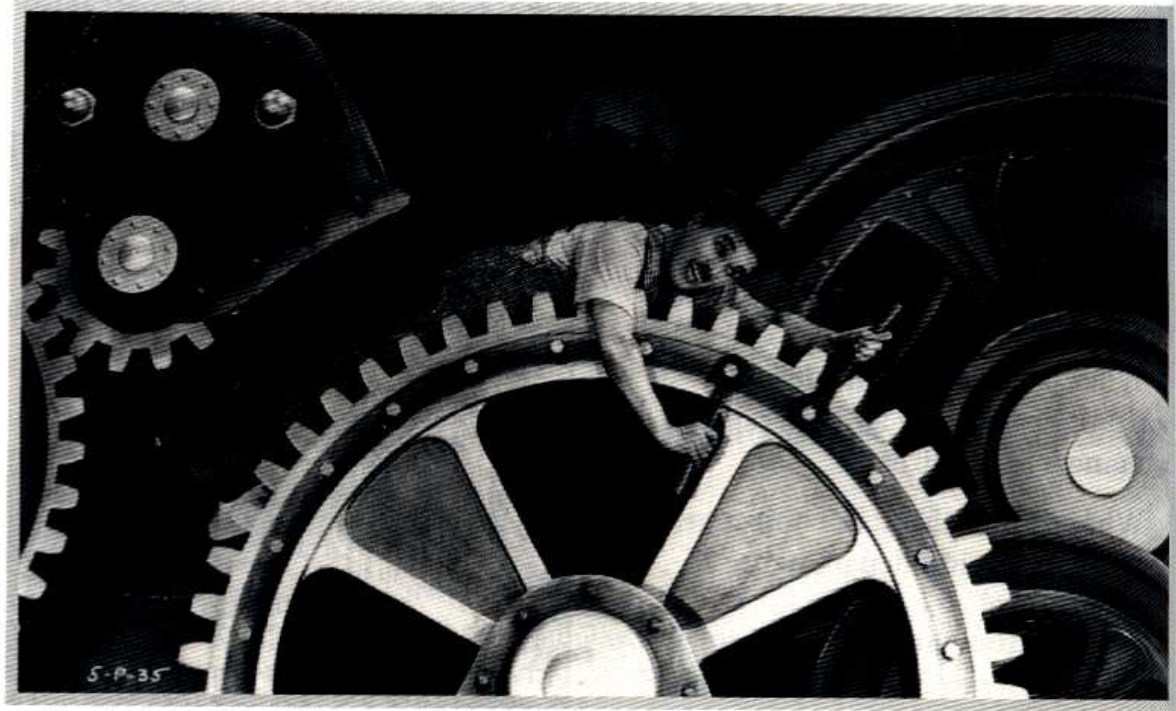
1b Vocabulary

These are some basic words used in relation to industrial production. Match them up with the definitions below.

capacity	component	inventory	lead time	location
outsourcing or contracting out		plant	subcontractor	

- 1 any company that provides goods or services for another one
- 2 any of the pieces or parts that make up a product, machine, etc.
- 3 buying products or processed materials from other companies rather than manufacturing them
- 4 the (maximum) rate of output that can be achieved from a production process
- 5 the buildings, machines, equipment and other facilities used in the production process
- 6 the geographical situation of a factory or other facility
- 7 the stock of any item or resource used in an organization (including raw materials, parts, supplies, work in process and finished products)
- 8 the time needed to perform an activity (i.e. to manufacture or deliver something)

1c Vocabulary



After it has been decided what to manufacture, operations managers have to decide *where* to manufacture the different products, *how much productive capacity* their factories and plants should have, and *how much inventory* to maintain. Read the 15 sentences below, and classify them under the following six headings. Some sentences may fall under two headings.

- A The consequences of insufficient capacity
- B The consequences of excess capacity
- C The advantages of large facilities
- D The disadvantages of large facilities
- E The advantages of having a large inventory
- F The disadvantages of having a large inventory

- 1 A long lead time may allow competitors to enter the market.
- 2 Average fixed cost per unit drops as volume increases because each succeeding unit absorbs part of the fixed costs, giving economies of scale.
- 3 Finding staff and coordinating material flow become expensive and difficult.
- 4 If lead time increases, some customers may go to other suppliers.
- 5 Lost sales and market share are usually permanent.
- 6 The working environment might worsen and industrial relations deteriorate.
- 7 There are costs of storage, handling, insurance, depreciation, the opportunity cost of capital, and so on.
- 8 You can be more flexible in product scheduling, and have longer lead times and lower cost operation through larger production runs with fewer set-ups.
- 9 There is always a risk of obsolescence, theft, breakage, and so on.
- 10 You can meet variation in product demand.
- 11 You may be under-utilizing your work force.

- 12 You have protection against variation in raw material delivery time (due to shortages, strikes, lost orders, incorrect or defective shipments, etc.).
- 13 You may be forced to produce additional less profitable products.
- 14 You can take advantage of quantity discounts in purchasing.
- 15 You may have to reduce prices to stimulate demand.

1d Reading

Read the text below, and insert the eight words defined in 1b in the spaces.

<i>capacity</i>	<i>component</i>	<i>inventory</i>	<i>lead times</i>
<i>location</i>	<i>outsourcing</i>	<i>plants</i>	<i>subcontractor</i>

JUST-IN-TIME PRODUCTION

Manufacturing companies are faced with a 'make-or-buy decision' for every item or (1) they use (as well as for every process and service). Do they make it themselves or do they outsource, and buy from a (2) ? If a company assembles products supplied by a large number of subcontractors, they face the problem of how much (3) they require.

In Just-In-Time (JIT) production – also called lean production, stockless production, and continuous flow manufacture – nothing is bought or produced until it is needed. Each section of the production process makes the necessary quantity of the necessary units at the necessary time – which is when it is required by the next stage of the manufacturing process, or by distributors or customers.

The JIT system is usually credited to Taiichi Ohno, who was vice-president for manufacturing with Toyota in Japan in the early 1950s – although he stated that he got the idea from American supermarkets! JIT is wholly contrary to the European and American logic of encouraging greater productivity, and welcoming production that exceeds the agreed schedule or quota, and stocking extras in case of future problems.

JIT minimizes the cost of holding inventories, which are regarded negatively, as avoidable costs, rather than as assets. The large Japanese manufacturing companies have long practised (4) , and generally use extensive networks of small subcontractors. Of course, if a single subcontractor fails to deliver a component on time, the whole production process is sabotaged, but the Japanese industrial system relies on mutual trust and long-term relationships. Small suppliers often attempt to situate their facilities close to the (5) of a larger company with which they work.

The Japanese also prefer small, specialized production (6) with a limited (7) , in which, wherever possible, all the machines required for a certain job are grouped together. This avoids all the waiting and moving time involved in sending half-finished items from one department to another, although it often requires flexible, multi-skilled employees.

JIT thus greatly reduces transportation and inventory costs, and should ensure that there is no waste from overproduction, or from idle workers waiting for parts. It allows increased productivity because of shortened throughput time. If factories are equipped so that set-up times are short, very small production runs are possible. Any quality problems or product defects should be noticed more quickly, production (8) are reduced, and the firm can react more rapidly to demand changes.

1e Comprehension

According to the text, are the following sentences TRUE or FALSE? If they are false, say why.

- 1 In JIT, products are 'pulled' through the manufacturing process from the end, rather than 'pushed' through from the beginning.
- 2 JIT originated in American manufacturing.
- 3 JIT encourages production workers to exceed their production targets.
- 4 Companies using the JIT system and outsourcing many of their components are highly dependent on their subcontractors.
- 5 In a JIT system, a delivery of defective components can be replaced from the reserve inventory.
- 6 JIT depends on harmonious partnerships between a company and its suppliers.
- 7 Japanese production systems generally speed up the entire manufacturing process.
- 8 JIT leads to economies of scale.
- 9 JIT production – manufacturing only when a customer places an order – does not encourage innovation or the creation of demand.

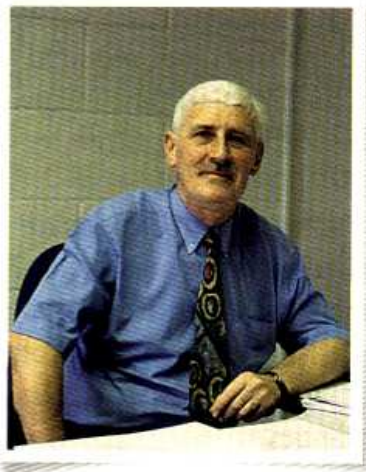
2 Quality

2a Discussion

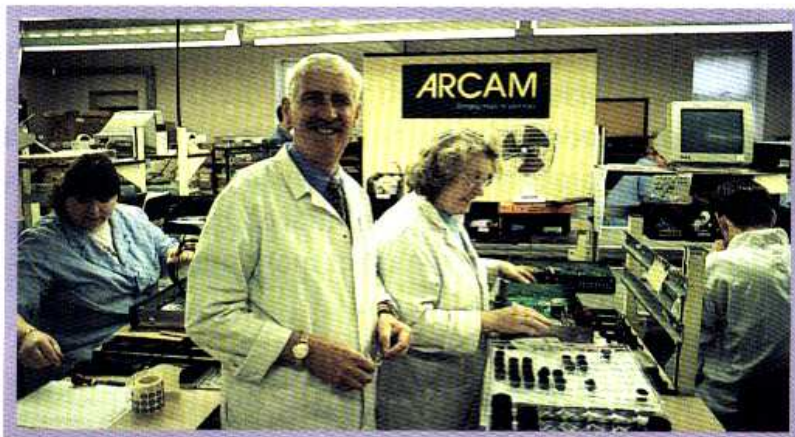
- 1 When consumers talk about *quality*, what different aspects or criteria do they have in mind? How would you define *quality* in relation to the following?
 - a fast-food snack
 - a small car (US automobile)
 - a restaurant meal
 - a raincoat
 - a tennis club
 - hi-fi equipment
- 2 A well-known book on production is called *Quality is Free*, in which Philip B. Crosby argues that what costs money is a *lack* of quality – not doing things right the first time. List some of the expenses a company can avoid by *preventing* poor quality *before* it happens.

2b Listening

▶ Alan Severn:
'I'm the Quality Manager ...
everybody in the
company works
for me.'



You will hear part of an interview with Alan Severn, the Quality Manager of Arcam, a British manufacturer of specialized, high quality hi-fi equipment: CD players, amplifiers, tuners and cassette decks.



Listen to the interview and then answer these questions.

- 1 How many people work for the quality manager?
- 2 What are the two important aspects of the design of Arcam products that Alan Severn mentions?
- 3 According to what Alan Severn says, does quality begin with (a) the designers or (b) the suppliers of components?
- 4 What does Alan Severn mean by Total Quality Management at Arcam?
- 5 What is his definition of success in terms of quality?



2c Role play

Quality: Should we recall this product?

A British food and drink manufacturer has just discovered that some bottles of its coffee-flavoured energy drink *Lift* have small pieces of glass in them. Six hours ago, a customer returned an unopened bottle with pieces of glass in it to a supermarket in the north of England. The supermarket examined the other bottles on the shelf and found that two others also had pieces of glass in them. At about the same time, the same thing happened in a shop in Belgium. In both cases the customer left the shop without giving his name.

Bottles from the same production run have already been distributed and are on sale in six other countries in western Europe, and 50,000 bottles are currently being shipped to the USA.



The company manufactures 50 different food and drink products. It makes six different soft drinks, all of which are bottled in the same plant near London. *Lift* is the most recent product. It has been extremely successful with young consumers, and is currently being exported to 15 different countries. Plans are being made to set up joint ventures with other companies in Europe and the US, and to bottle the drink in several major markets.

The managing director has called an emergency meeting at the company's London headquarters, to which he/she has invited the company's marketing director, financial director, human resources director, and the head of the legal department, as well as the managing director of the company that supplies the bottles, and the production manager of the bottling plant. The company's board of directors is meeting this evening. At this meeting, the managing director will have to recommend a plan of action.

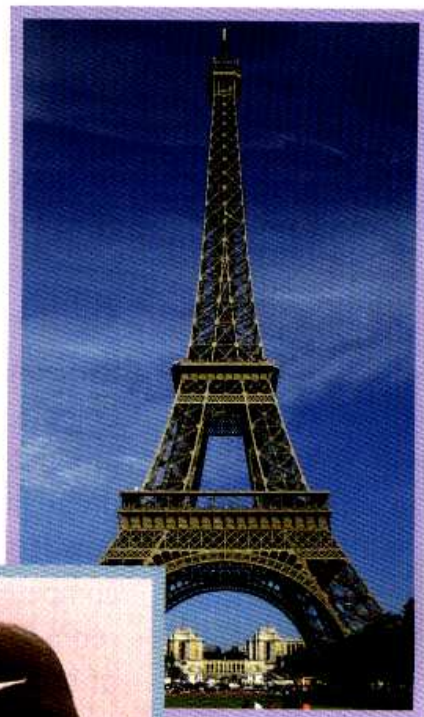
Before that, he/she has to listen to his/her colleagues' opinions about whether the entire production run should be recalled, announcements made to the media, and so on. It is also necessary to establish the cause of the problem, and to take action to prevent it happening again.

Your teacher will give you further details about the roles (from the Teacher's Book). In a group, you have to prepare a role: what will you say in the meeting?

Unit 9 | Products

1 Product policy

1a Discussion



People and places can also be marketed as products



Give three examples of brands to which you are loyal (i.e. which you buy without giving it a moment's thought). *Why* are you loyal to them?

Are there any products for which you have no brand preference or loyalty but are what marketers call a 'brand-switcher'?

Can you think of any products for which the name of the brand is totally unimportant, so that you do not even notice it? (There may be some in your bag or briefcase.)

Give an example of a product line (a group of related products made by the same company). Think of clothes, cosmetics, food, and so on.

1b Reading

Read the following text, and write a brief heading for each paragraph.

PRODUCTS AND BRANDS

1

Marketing theorists tend to give the word *product* a very broad meaning, using it to refer to anything capable of satisfying a need or want. Thus services, activities, people (politicians, athletes, film stars), places (holiday resorts), organizations (hospitals, colleges, political parties), and ideas, as well as physical objects offered for sale by retailers, can be considered as products. Physical products can usually be augmented by benefits such as customer advice, delivery, credit facilities, a warranty or guarantee, maintenance, after-sales service, and so on.

2

Some manufacturers use their name (the 'family name') for all their products, e.g. Philips, Colgate, Yamaha. Others, including Unilever and Procter & Gamble, market various products under individual brand names, with the result that many customers are unfamiliar with the name of the manufacturing company. The major producers of soap powders, for example, are famous for their multi-brand strategy which allows them to compete in various market segments, and to fill shelf space in shops, thereby leaving less room for competitors. It also gives them a greater chance of getting some of the custom of brand-switchers.

3

Most manufacturers produce a large number of products, often divided into product lines. Most product lines consist of several products, often distinguished by brand names, e.g. a range of soap powders, or of toothpastes. Several different items (different sizes or models) may share the same brand name. Together, a company's items, brands and products constitute its product mix. Since different products are always at different stages of their life cycles, with growing, stable or declining sales and profitability, and because markets, opportunities and resources are in constant evolution, companies are always looking to the future, and re-evaluating their product mix.

4

Companies whose objectives include high market share and market growth generally have long product lines, i.e. a large number of items. Companies whose objective is high profitability will have shorter lines, including only profitable items. Yet most product lines have a tendency to lengthen over time, as companies produce variations on existing items, or add additional items to cover further market segments. Additions to product lines can be the result of either line-stretching or line-filling. Line-stretching means lengthening a product line by moving either up-market or down-market, i.e. making items of higher or lower quality. This can be carried out in order to reach new customers, to enter growing or more profitable market segments, to react to competitors' initiatives, and so on. Yet such moves may cause image problems: moving to the lower end of a

market dilutes a company's image for quality, while a company at the bottom of a range may not convince dealers and customers that it can produce quality products for the high end. Line-filling – adding further items in that part of a product range which a line already covers – might be done in order to compete in competitors' niches, or simply to utilize excess production capacity.

1c Comprehension

- 1 Why do the big soap powder producers have a multi-brand strategy?
- 2 Why do companies' product mixes regularly change?
- 3 What factors influence the length of companies' product lines?
- 4 What are the potential dangers of line-stretching?
- 5 Why might companies undertake line-filling?

1d Vocabulary

Find words or expressions in the text which mean the following.

- 1 the possibility of paying for a product over an extended period
- 2 a promise by a manufacturer or seller to repair or replace defective goods during a certain period of time
- 3 a surface in a store on which goods are displayed
- 4 consumers who buy various competing products rather than being loyal to a particular brand
- 5 the standard pattern of sales of a product over the period that it is marketed
- 6 the extent to which an activity provides financial gain
- 7 possibilities of filling unsatisfied needs in sectors in which the company can produce goods or services effectively
- 8 the sales of a company expressed as a percentage of total sales in a given market
- 9 the set of beliefs that the public at large holds of an organization
- 10 a small, specialized, but profitable segment of a market

2 Developing a new product

You will hear Jogishwar Singh, a director of the Swiss holding company Tégé, talking about the forthcoming launch of 'Fresh Fries', a fast-food product that will be sold in vending machines.

2a Discussion

Do you ever use vending machines? If so, what for, why and when?

What are the potential advantages and disadvantages of this form of distribution, for both the seller and the customer?



● Jogishwar Singh

2b Listening

Listen to the interview. Which of the alternative answers is correct?

- 1 Fresh Fries machines will be installed
 - A in cafés and restaurants and other public places.
 - B in all kinds of places where people come to eat.
 - C in places where there are lots of people.
- 2 Fresh Fries are made from
 - A dried potatoes and water.
 - B fresh potatoes and oil.
 - C powdered potatoes and various secret ingredients.
- 3 The vending machine will be followed by a smaller machine
 - A for home and commercial use.
 - B for people to use at home.
 - C for smaller restaurants.
- 4 The machine has been through a series of prototypes because
 - A the inventor came up with further inventions.
 - B the inventor made design improvements.
 - C other people gave the inventor new ideas.
- 5 Inventors usually do not know enough about
 - A industrial engineering.
 - B raising finance.
 - C the economics and realities of industrial production.
- 6 Jogishwar Singh thinks the most important reason the product will succeed all over the world is
 - A its speed in delivering the fries.
 - B the fact that the fries will always have exactly the same quality.
 - C the quality of the fries and especially their crispness.



2c Vocabulary

Look at the following words and expressions, and then listen to the interview again, and write down the words and expressions used in the interview that mean nearly the same.

- 1 a serving of food designed for one person
- 2 an alternative British word for what Americans call french fries
- 3 eye-catching, noticeable
- 4 from which water has been removed
- 5 the components of which a food product is made
- 6 a small booth used for selling newspapers, cigarettes, ice cream, and so on
- 7 the owners of a company
- 8 a large amount of money
- 9 uniformity, regularity, sameness (of a product sold worldwide)
- 10 a symbol or design or the particular form of lettering of a trade mark

2d Discussion

Where would *you* be most likely to use such a machine?

What do you think are Tégé's chances of successfully launching this product in your country?

And in 180 countries?

2e Preparing a report

Imagine that an international vending machine operator is hoping to increase its activities in your country, and has hired you to report on the existing market and to suggest new products that could be distributed via vending machines.

First you have to prepare a report outlining:

- which products are currently sold in vending machines in your country
- where such machines are usually situated
- what kind of customers generally use them
- in what circumstances

Then you have to suggest further products that could perhaps be distributed in this way.

Prepare your report with two colleagues.

2f Discussion: M-commerce

One problem with vending machines is the use of *money*: customers may not have the right change; thieves may try to break into machines; coins might change, requiring machines to be adapted (e.g. the introduction of the euro), etc.

One solution to this is to pay using a mobile phone.

At the time of writing, most people only use mobile phones for calls and text messages. Very few people are used to the idea of buying things with their mobile phones, but this is a field that is developing rapidly. Vending machines are being adapted so that people can buy snacks and drinks by entering a number on their phone, with the price added to their telephone bill.

Mobile phones linked to the internet also allow customers to receive instant information. Can you think of any other goods or services that could be delivered and paid for using machines and mobile phones? Here are some examples from Finland (the country with the highest *per capita* use of mobile phones) from the year 2000.

- paying for bus tickets, and finding out when the next bus is due, which can be useful in winter when the temperature is minus 20 degrees
- getting information about what's on at your local cinema and paying for the tickets
- a car-wash machine that you operate by dialling a phone number rather than going into the garage to pay



Unit 10 Marketing

1 Defining marketing

1a Definition

Here is a definition of marketing. Complete it by inserting the following verbs in the gaps.

design develop identify influence modify persuade

Marketers have to (1) or anticipate a consumer need; (2) a product or service that meets that need better than any competing products or services; (3) target customers to try the product or service; and, in the long term, (4) it to satisfy changes in consumer needs or market conditions. Marketers can (5) particular features, attractive packaging, and effective advertising, that will (6) consumers' wants. Marketing thus begins long before the product or service is put on the market; it combines market research, new product development, distribution, advertising, promotion, product improvement, and so on.

Here is a second definition of marketing (as opposed to selling):

There will always, one can assume, be a need for some selling. But the aim of marketing is to make selling superfluous. The aim of marketing is to know and understand the customer so well that the product or service fits him and sells itself. Ideally, marketing should result in a customer who is ready to buy.

(Peter Drucker: *Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices*)

What do you think of this definition? Can selling really become superfluous, even if the customer is ready to buy? Or is there one important aspect of business that this definition overlooks?

Can you think of any examples of products for which marketers anticipated a consumer need (i.e. products you had never imagined needing before they were developed)?

1b Vocabulary

Match up the words or expressions on the left with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1 distribution channel | A all the companies or individuals involved in moving a particular good or service from the producer to the consumer |
| 2 to launch a product | B an idea for a new product, which is tested with target consumers before the actual product is developed |
| 3 market opportunities | C attributes or characteristics of a product: quality, price, reliability, etc. |
| 4 market research | D dividing a market into distinct groups of buyers who have different requirements or buying habits |
| 5 market segmentation | E places where goods are sold to the public – shops, stores, kiosks, market stalls, etc. |
| 6 packaging | F possibilities of filling unsatisfied needs in sectors in which a company can profitably produce goods or services |
| 7 points of sale | G someone who contacts existing and potential customers, and tries to persuade them to buy goods or services |
| 8 product concept | H collecting, analysing and reporting data relevant to a specific marketing situation (such as a proposed new product) |
| 9 product features | I to introduce a new product onto the market |
| 10 sales representative | J wrappers and containers in which products are sold |

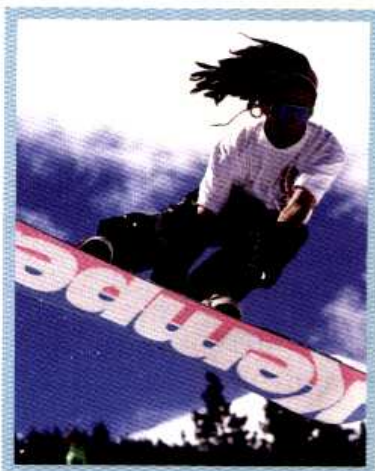
1c Reading

Look quickly through the following text and decide which paragraphs are about these subjects:

- – company-to-company marketing
- – identifying market opportunities
- – the marketing mix
- – the selling and marketing concepts
- – the importance of market research

THE CENTRALITY OF MARKETING

- 1 Most management and marketing writers now distinguish between selling and marketing. The 'selling concept' assumes that resisting consumers have to be persuaded by vigorous hard-selling techniques to buy non-essential goods or services. Products are sold rather than bought. The 'marketing concept', on the contrary, assumes that the producer's task is to find wants and fill them. In other words, you don't sell what you make, you make what will be bought. As well as satisfying existing needs, marketers can also anticipate and create new ones. The markets for the



Walkman, video recorders, videogame consoles, CD players, personal computers, the internet, mobile phones, mountain bikes, snowboards, and genetic engineering, to choose some recent examples, were largely created rather than identified.

- 2 Marketers are consequently always looking for market opportunities - profitable possibilities of filling unsatisfied needs or creating new ones in areas in which the company is likely to enjoy a differential advantage due to its distinctive competencies (the things it does particularly well). Market opportunities are generally isolated by market segmentation. Once a target market has been identified, a company has to decide what goods or service to offer. This means that much of the work of marketing has been done before the final product or service comes into existence. It also means that the marketing concept has to be understood throughout the company, e.g. in the production department of a manufacturing company as much as in the marketing department itself. The company must also take account of the existence of competitors, who always have to be identified, monitored and defeated in the search for loyal customers.
- 3 Rather than risk launching a product or service solely on the basis of intuition or guesswork, most companies undertake market research (GB) or marketing research (US). They collect and analyse information about the size of a potential market, about consumers' reactions to particular product or service features, and so on. Sales representatives, who also talk to customers, are another important source of information.
- 4 Once the basic offer, e.g. a product concept, has been established, the company has to think about the marketing mix, i.e. all the various elements of a marketing programme, their integration, and the amount of effort that a company can expend on them in order to influence the target market. The best-known classification of these elements is the 'Four Ps': product, place, promotion and price. Aspects to be considered in marketing products include quality, features (standard and optional), style, brand name, size, packaging, services and guarantee. Place in a marketing mix includes such factors as distribution channels, locations of points of sale, transport, inventory size, etc. Promotion groups together advertising, publicity, sales promotion, and personal selling, while price includes the basic list price, discounts, the length of the payment period, possible credit terms, and so on. It is the job of a product manager or a brand manager to look for ways to increase sales by changing the marketing mix.
- 5 It must be remembered that quite apart from consumer markets (in which people buy products for direct consumption) there exists an enormous producer or industrial or business market, consisting of all the individuals and organizations that acquire goods and services that are used in the production of other goods, or in the supply of services to others. Few consumers realize that the producer market is actually larger than the consumer market, since it contains all the raw materials, manufactured parts and components that go into consumer goods, plus

capital equipment such as buildings and machines, supplies such as energy and pens and paper, and services ranging from cleaning to management consulting, all of which have to be marketed. There is consequently more industrial than consumer marketing, even though ordinary consumers are seldom exposed to it.

1d Comprehension

Which of the following three paragraphs most accurately summarizes the text in 1c, and why?

First summary:

Marketing means that you don't have to worry about selling your product, because you know it satisfies a need. Companies have to identify market opportunities by market segmentation: doing market research, finding a target market, and producing the right product. Once a product concept has been established, marketers regularly have to change the marketing mix – the product's features, its distribution, the way it is promoted, and its price – in order to increase sales. Industrial goods – components and equipment for producers of other goods – have to be marketed as well as consumer goods.

Second summary:

The marketing concept has now completely replaced the old-fashioned selling concept. Companies have to identify and satisfy the needs of particular market segments. A product's features are often changed, as are its price, the places in which it is sold, and the way in which it is promoted. More important than the marketing of consumer goods is the marketing of industrial or producer goods.

Third summary:

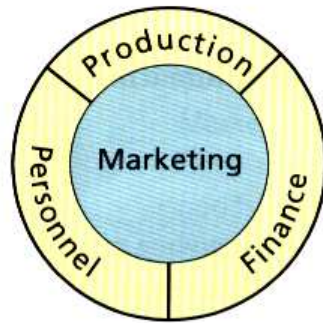
The marketing concept is that a company's choice of what goods and services to offer should be based on the goal of satisfying consumers' needs. Many companies limit themselves to attempting to satisfy the needs of particular market segments. Their choice of action is often the result of market research. A product's features, the methods of distributing and promoting it, and its price, can all be changed during the course of its life, if necessary. Quite apart from the marketing of consumer products, with which everybody is familiar, there is a great deal of marketing of industrial goods.

1e Comprehension

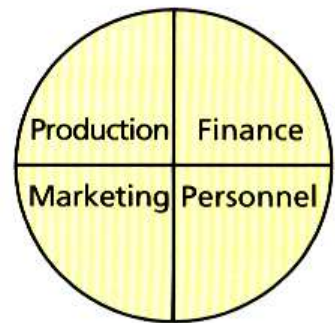
Look at the following diagrams from *Marketing Management* by Philip Kotler.

According to the text in 1c, which of these diagrams best illustrates a company that has adopted the marketing concept?

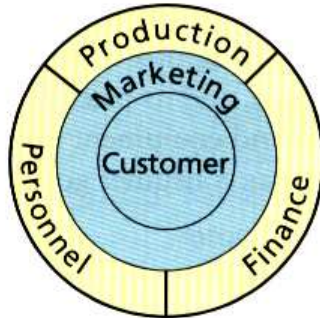
A



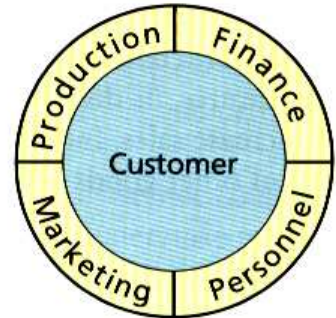
B



C



D



2 The importance of market research

2a Listening



 Steve Moody

Listen to Steve Moody, the manager of the Marks & Spencer store in Cambridge, giving a hypothetical example of a marketing failure – a product that reaches the shops but fails to sell – and answer the questions.

- 1 What does Steve Moody say is the role of Marks & Spencer's head office?
- 2 What is the example of a product that fails to sell?
- 3 In these circumstances, whose fault would it be that the product failed? What had not been done properly, before the product was delivered to the stores?
- 4 Who would be the only people in the company that would be able to find out what is wrong?
- 5 What action could Marks & Spencer take?
- 6 How does Steve Moody describe the relationship between head office and the individual stores?

2b Case study: Market research

In Steve Moody's hypothetical example, it seems as if there has been a market research failure. Before launching the product, the store did not have enough information about the potential market and customers' tastes and opinions.

Suppose that you were part of the marketing team responsible for the following product concepts:

- 1 A new line of swimwear, to be sold by a chain of department stores



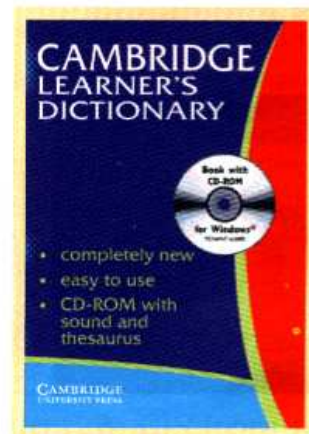
- 2 Fresh Fries



- 3 A new range of expensive hi-fi equipment



- 4 A new English dictionary for foreign learners



What market research would you do before developing the products? What specific information would you need? Where could you get it?

In each case, which of the following sources of information do you think would be the most useful, and why?

- Focus group interviews, in which several members of the target market are invited (and paid a small fee) to meet and discuss the product concept
- Internal research: analysing data already available in the company's accounts and sales departments, which keep records of sales, orders, inventory size, and so on
- Printed sources of secondary data, including business newspapers, magazines and trade journals, competitors' annual reports, official government statistics, and reports published by private market research agencies
- Questionnaire research, by telephone, mail, or personal interviewing
- The company's own sales staff
- Other sources

Unit 11 Advertising

1 Ways of advertising

1a Vocabulary

Identify these different advertising media.

Eight different ways of advertising are illustrated (one of them by the indirect means of sports sponsorship). Classify them according to how much you think each of these advertising messages costs, going from the most expensive to the cheapest.

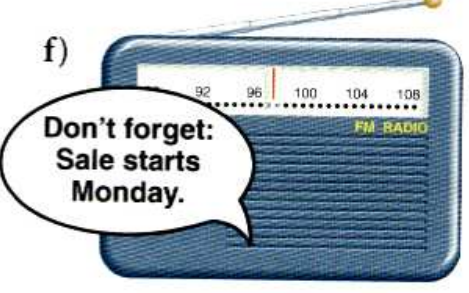
a) 

b) 

c) 

d) 

e) 

f) 

g) 

h) 

1b Reading

Read the text opposite and answer the following questions.

- 1 What is the best kind of advertising?
- 2 Why do most companies use advertising agencies?
- 3 When a company hires an advertising agency, what are the roles of both parties?
- 4 What is a media plan?
- 5 Why does advertising become ineffective after a certain point?

HOW COMPANIES ADVERTISE

Advertising informs consumers about the existence and benefits of products and services, and attempts to persuade them to buy them. The best form of advertising is probably word-of-mouth advertising, which occurs when people tell their friends about the benefits of products or services that they have purchased. Yet virtually no providers of goods or services rely on this alone, but use paid advertising instead. Indeed, many organizations also use institutional or prestige advertising, which is designed to build up their reputation rather than to sell particular products.

Although large companies could easily set up their own advertising departments, write their own advertisements, and buy media space themselves, they tend to use the services of large advertising agencies. These are likely to have more resources, and more knowledge about all aspects of advertising and advertising media than a single company. The most talented advertising people generally prefer to work for agencies rather than individual companies as this gives them the chance to work on a variety of advertising accounts (contracts to advertise products or services). It is also easier for a dissatisfied company to give its account to another agency than it would be to fire its own advertising staff.

The client company generally gives the advertising agency an agreed budget; a statement of the objectives of the advertising campaign, known as a brief; and an overall advertising strategy concerning the message to be communicated to the target customers. The agency creates advertisements (the word is often abbreviated to *adverts* or *ads*), and develops a media plan specifying which media – newspapers, magazines, radio, television, cinema, posters, mail, etc. – will be used and in which proportions. (On television and radio, ads are often known as commercials.) Agencies often produce alternative ads or commercials that are pre-tested in newspapers, television stations, etc. in different parts of a country before a final choice is made prior to a national campaign.

The agency's media planners have to decide what percentage of the target market they want to reach (how many people will be exposed to the ads) and the number of times they are likely to see them. Advertising people talk about frequency or 'OTS' (opportunities to see) and the threshold effect – the point at which advertising becomes effective. The choice of advertising media is generally strongly influenced by the comparative cost of reaching 1,000 members of the target audience, the cost per thousand (often abbreviated to CPM, using the Roman numeral for 1,000). The timing of advertising campaigns depends on factors such as purchasing frequency and buyer turnover (new buyers entering the market).

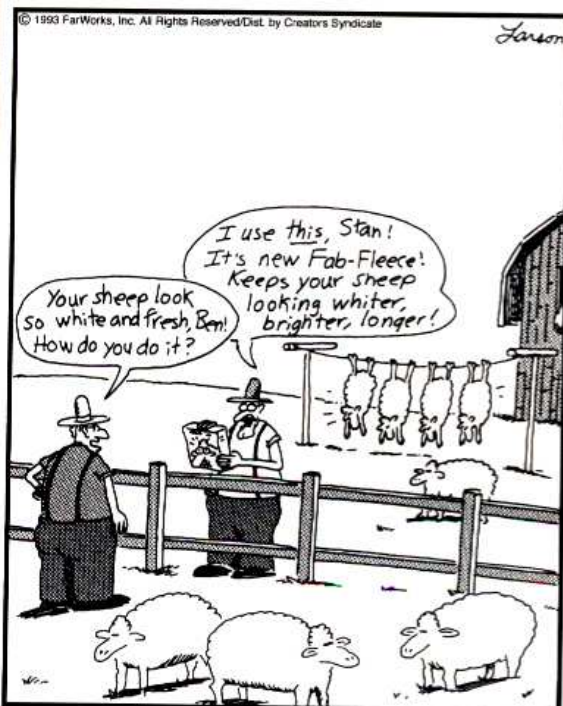
How much to spend on advertising is always problematic. Some companies use the comparative-parity method – they simply match their competitors' spending, thereby avoiding advertising wars. Others set their ad budget at a certain percentage of current sales revenue. But both these methods disregard the fact that increased ad spending or counter-cyclical advertising can increase current sales. On the other hand, excessive advertising is counter-productive because after too many exposures people tend to stop noticing ads, or begin to find them irritating. And once the most promising prospective customers have been reached, there are diminishing returns, i.e. an ever-smaller increase in sales in relation to increased advertising spending.

1c Vocabulary

Find the terms in the text which mean the following.

- 1 free advertising, when satisfied customers recommend products to their friends
- 2 advertising that mentions a company's name but not specific products
- 3 companies that handle advertising for clients
- 4 a contract with a company to produce its advertising
- 5 the amount of money a company plans to spend in developing its advertising and buying media time or space
- 6 the statement of objectives of an advertising campaign that a client works out with an advertising agency
- 7 the advertising of a particular product or service during a particular period of time
- 8 a defined set of customers whose needs a company plans to satisfy
- 9 the people who choose where to advertise, in order to reach the right customers
- 10 the fact that a certain amount of advertising is necessary to attract a prospective customer's attention
- 11 choosing to spend the same amount on advertising as one's competitors
- 12 advertising during periods or seasons when sales are normally relatively poor

THE FAR SIDE® BY GARY LARSON



Now at your local feed store

1d Discussion

Which of the following claims do you agree with?

- 1 Advertising is essential for business, especially for launching new consumer products.
- 2 A large reduction of advertising would decrease sales.
- 3 Advertising often persuades people to buy things they don't need.
- 4 Advertising often persuades people to buy things they don't want.
- 5 Advertising lowers the public's taste.
- 6 Advertising raises prices.
- 7 Advertising does not present a true picture of products.
- 8 Advertising has a bad influence on children.

In a well-known survey, the *Harvard Business Review* asked 2,700 senior business managers whether they agreed with these statements. The survey produced some unexpected results. Which of the following percentages do you think go with which of the statements above?

41% 49% 51% 57% 60% 72% 85% 90%

After matching up these figures and statements, look at the true figures on page 177.

After reading the opinions expressed in the *Harvard Business Review* survey, do you want to revise the opinions you expressed above?

2 Radio commercials

2a Listening

Listen once to the three radio commercials, which come from music-based radio stations in London.

- What are the products and services being advertised?

Now listen again to each of the commercials in turn, as many times as necessary to answer the questions which follow.

2b Commercial 1

- 1 Which three aspects of the service are emphasized?
- 2 What, according to the ad, will be the effect of the first two of them on the customer?
- 3 Why do you think these three aspects were chosen, and why does the ad use these particular verbs?
- 4 What is the short, last sentence of the ad?
- 5 What else does the ad use apart from words?

2c Commercial 2

- 1 What is the horror story here, and why?
- 2 Unusually, the listener is not expected to understand everything that is said in this ad. Why not?
- 3 The ad mentions *home entertainment systems*. What other terms does it use instead of the more common *stereo*, *radio*, *television* and *video recorder*?
- 4 Do you find this ad amusing?

2d Commercial 3

- 1 How does the ad give an Italian 'flavour'? Can you think of any other way in which this could have been done?
- 2 Which of these three ads do you prefer, and why?

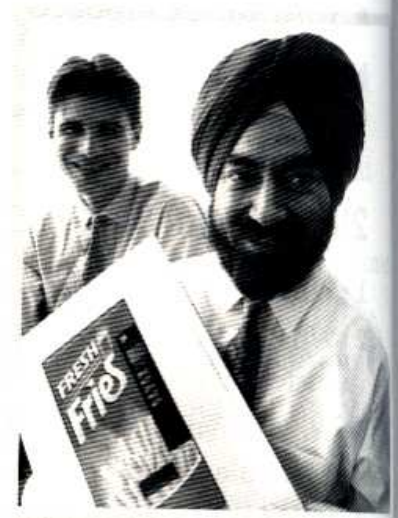
2e Scripting a radio commercial

In small groups, write a script for a 20-second commercial to be played on a popular English-language radio station, advertising either a well-known product exported by your country, or some form of travel to your country. Remember that you have to persuade and inform, and are not supposed to say anything misleading or untruthful – although of course in this case you are free to invent the name of the company, the details of its service, and so on. You may use music and sound effects if you have access to them. If not, merely indicate what you would use in addition to a voice or voices.

Unit 12 Promotional tools

1 Promoting a new product

Companies have to develop good products or services, price them attractively, and make them accessible to their target customers. But this is not enough: they also have to use various promotional tools to generate sales. According to a classification used in most marketing textbooks, advertising is only one of four standard promotional tools. The others are sales promotions, public relations, and personal selling.



▶ Jogishwar Singh and Patrick Bigger promoting Fresh Fries

1a Listening

You will hear Jogishwar Singh explaining the promotional strategies for the trial launch of Fresh Fries, which you heard about in Unit 9.

Look at the phrases below. Which of these topics are mentioned in the interview?

- 1 free advertising on television
- 2 publicity in newspapers
- 3 publicity on television
- 4 giving away the fries for free for a trial period
- 5 letting vending-machine operators have a free trial
- 6 paid advertising
- 7 the colour of the machines
- 8 the fact that this is a novel product
- 9 the price of the product
- 10 the size and shape of the machines
- 11 the unique taste of the product
- 12 where the machines are situated

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1b Comprehension

- 1 What do you think Jogishwar Singh means by 'launching a media blitz'?
- 2 When will the company start to use advertising?
- 3 According to what Jogishwar Singh says, what is the difference between *advertising* and *publicity*?

2 Promotional strategies

2a Reading

Insert the following words in the text below.

advertising *aimed* *awareness* *channel* *loyalty*
maturity *medium* *tactics* *target* *trial*

THE FOUR MAJOR PROMOTIONAL TOOLS

The basic idea behind the 'marketing concept' – that you make what you can sell rather than sell what you make – does not mean that your product will sell all by itself. Even a good, attractively priced product that clearly satisfies a need has to be made known to its (1) customers. During the introduction and growth stages of the standard product life cycle, the producer (or importer, and so on) has to develop product or brand (2), i.e. inform potential customers (and distributors, dealers and retailers) about the product's existence, its features, its advantages, and so on.

According to the well-known 'Four Ps' formulation of the marketing mix (product, place, promotion and price), this is clearly a matter of promotion. Since budgets are always limited, marketers usually have to decide which tools – advertising, public relations, sales promotion, or personal selling – to use, and in what proportion.

Public relations (often abbreviated to PR) is concerned with maintaining, improving or protecting the image of a company or product. The most important element of PR is publicity which (as opposed to advertising) is any mention of a company's products that is not paid for, in any (3) read, viewed or heard by a company's customers or potential customers, aimed at assisting sales. Many companies attempt to place stories or information in news media to attract attention to a product or service. Publicity can have a huge impact on public awareness that could not be achieved by advertising, or at least not without an enormous cost. A lot of research has shown that people are more likely to read and believe publicity than advertising.

Sales promotions such as free samples, coupons, price reductions, competitions, and so on, are temporary (4) designed to stimulate either earlier or stronger sales of a product. Free samples, for example, (combined with extensive advertising), may generate the initial (5) of a new product. But the majority of products available at any given time are of course in the (6) stage of the life cycle. This may last many years, until the product begins to be replaced by new ones and enters the decline stage. During this time, marketers can try out a number of promotional strategies and tactics. Reduced-price packs in supermarkets, for example, can be used to attract price-conscious brand-switchers, and also to counter a promotion by a competitor. Stores also often reduce prices of specific items as loss leaders which bring customers into the shop where they will also buy other goods.

Sales promotions can also be (7) at distributors, dealers and retailers, to encourage them to stock new items or larger quantities, or to encourage off-season buying, or the stocking of items related to an existing product. They might equally be designed to strengthen brand (8) among retailers, or to gain entry to

new markets. Sales promotions can also be aimed at the sales force, encouraging them to increase their activities in selling a particular product.

Personal selling is the most expensive promotional tool, and is generally only used sparingly, e.g. as a complement to (9) As well as prospecting for customers, spreading information about a company's products and services, selling these products and services, and assisting customers with possible technical problems, salespeople have another important function. Since they are often the only person from a company that customers see, they are an extremely important (10) of information. It has been calculated that the majority of new product ideas come from customers via sales representatives.

2b Summarizing

Complete the following sentences to summarize the text above.

- 1 When a new product is launched, the producer has to ...
- 2 Promotion is one of the four ...; sales promotions are one of four different ...
- 3 The advantages of publicity include ...
- 4 The four stages of the standard product life cycle (excluding the pre-launch development stage) are ...
- 5 Reasons to offer temporary price reductions include ...
- 6 Sales promotions need not only be aimed at customers; ...
- 7 Apart from selling a company's products, sales representatives ...

2c Discussion

What kind of sales promotions are *you* receptive to?

- coupons giving a price reduction?
- free samples?
- discounts for buying a large quantity?
- price reductions in shops?
- packets offering '20% Extra'?
- competitions?

2d Vocabulary

There is a logical connection among three of the four words in each of the following groups. Which is the odd one out, and why?

- 1 advertising – competitors – publicity – sales promotion
- 2 advertising agency – advertising campaign – media plan – word-of-mouth advertising
- 3 advertising manager – brand-switcher – marketing manager – sales rep
- 4 after-sales service – guarantee – optional features – points of sale
- 5 brand awareness – brand loyalty – brand name – brand preference
- 6 competitions – coupons – free samples – line-stretching

- 7 credit terms – discount – list price – packaging
- 8 decline – growth – introduction – product improvement
- 9 focus group interviews – internal research – media plan – questionnaire
- 10 packaging – place – product – promotion

2e Case study: Promotional strategies



Imagine that you, in a team of three or four people, are responsible for promoting one of the following:

- a new, up-market health and fitness club
- a new brand of jeans, manufactured by a new (and therefore unknown) company
- a new, fashionable but inexpensive range of quartz watches
- potatoes, to be sold in supermarkets
- a new taxi company in your town

Decide exactly what your product is, what is special about it, and which tools you would use to promote it. Imagine that you have a generous budget, and are thus able to employ several different tactics.

2f Discussion

HOW MANY Ps?

Although most marketers talk about the four Ps, one marketing research student has suggested that there are in fact eight more. Vivien Keller, an MBA student at Midrand University in South Africa, says that a service-orientated economy requires a marketing mix that also includes:

- **people** – not only human resources and customers, but also *non-customers*: marketers need to analyse why they are not buying.
- **process** – the way in which a product is delivered can be as important as the product itself; a customer receiving excellent service with an average product is more likely to return than a customer receiving a good product with very bad service.
- **physical evidence** – or the way things look: people expect everything about a company to look good, from its premises to its notepaper.
- **positioning** – situating a product or a brand in relation to others already on the market.
- **profit** – the ultimate judge of a company's marketing efforts and the culmination of all the Ps; marketers cannot just focus on finding and fulfilling customers' needs but must always balance this with contributing to the company's profit.

Keller's other three Ps concern the need for the whole company to understand and practise marketing (see Unit 10 1e). **Planning** involves ensuring that marketing activities are integrated with the rest of the company's activities, which will lead it to formulate the right **policies**. Finally, **probing** means developing a marketing information system that is continuously searching for relevant information.

What do you think about this new account of the marketing mix? Are the eight Ps suggested by Keller as important as product, place, promotion and price? Or wouldn't they have been suggested if these words didn't begin with the letter P in English?

Consider again the product you promoted in the case study in 2e. What could the marketing department do in relation to the five Ps of *people, process, physical evidence, positioning* and *profit*?

Unit 13 Accounting and financial statements

1 Types of accounting

1a Vocabulary

Match up the terms on the left with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1 bookkeeping | A calculating an individual's or a company's liability for tax |
| 2 accounting | B writing down the details of transactions (debits and credits) |
| 3 managerial accounting | C keeping financial records, recording income and expenditure, valuing assets and liabilities, and so on |
| 4 cost accounting | D preparing budgets and other financial reports necessary for management |
| 5 tax accounting | E inspection and evaluation of accounts by a second set of accountants |
| 6 auditing | F using all available accounting procedures and tricks to disguise the true financial position of a company |
| 7 'creative accounting' | G working out the unit costs of products, including materials, labour and all other expenses |

1b Listening

You will hear Sarah Brandston, an accountant in New York, talking about bookkeeping and tax accounting. Read the following questions, and then listen to the interview.

- 1 In which fields do most of Sarah Brandston's clients work?
- 2 Why do they need an accountant?
- 3 What does Sarah Brandston describe as 'the basic rule for accounting'?
- 4 An individual can do business as a self-proprietorship. Sarah Brandston mentions two other types of business. What are they?
- 5 Sarah Brandston says 'bookkeeping is really a common sense way of keeping track of the income and expenses'. What does she mean by common sense in relation to recording expenses?



 Sarah Brandston, who runs her own accounting business in New York

1c Discussion

What particular skills do you think different kinds of accountants need?

Do you think you possess these skills? (What are *your* assets and liabilities?)

If you have yet to choose a career, do you think it could be accountancy?

2 Company accounts

2a Vocabulary

These are some of the most common terms in accounting. Match them up with the definitions below.

assets liabilities turnover

depreciation (GB) or amortization (US)

creditors (GB) or accounts payable (US)

debtors (GB) or accounts receivable (US)

overheads (GB) or overhead (US) earnings or income

shareholders (GB) or stockholders (US) stock (GB) or inventory (US)

- 1 a company's owners
- 2 the revenues received by a company during a given period, minus the cost of sales, operating expenses, and taxes
- 3 all the money that a company will have to pay to someone else in the future, including taxes, debts, and interest and mortgage payments
- 4 the amount of business done by a company over a year
- 5 anything owned by a business (cash investments, buildings, machines, and so on) that can be used to produce goods or pay liabilities
- 6 the reduction in value of a fixed asset during the years it is in use (charged against profits)
- 7 sums of money owed by customers for goods or services purchased on credit
- 8 sums of money owed to suppliers for purchases made on credit
- 9 (the value of) raw materials, work in progress, and finished products stored ready for sale
- 10 the various expenses of operating a business that cannot be charged to any one product, process or department



"However, under **another** accounting procedure ..."

2b Reading

Insert the words in the box in 2a in the gaps in the text.

ACCOUNTING AND FINANCIAL STATEMENTS

In accounting, it is always assumed that a business is a 'going concern', i.e. that it will continue indefinitely into the future – which means that the current market value of its fixed assets is irrelevant, as they are not for sale. Consequently, the most common accounting system is historical cost accounting, which records (1) at their original purchase price, minus accumulated depreciation charges. In times of inflation, this understates the value of appreciating assets such as land, but overstates profits as it does not record the replacement cost of plant or (2) The value of a business's assets under historical cost accounting – purchase price minus (3) – is known as its net book value. Countries with persistently high inflation often prefer to use current cost or replacement cost accounting, which values assets (and related expenses like depreciation) at the price that would have to be paid to replace them (or to buy a more modern equivalent) today.

Company law specifies that (4) must be given certain financial information. Companies generally include three financial statements in their annual reports.

The *profit and loss account* (GB) or *income statement* (US) shows (5) and expenditure. It usually gives figures for total sales or (6), and costs, expenses and (7) The first figure should obviously be the highest, i.e. there should be a profit. Part of the profit goes to the government in taxation, part is usually distributed to shareholders (stockholders) as a dividend, and part is retained by the company.

The *balance sheet* shows a company's financial situation on a particular date, generally the last day of the financial year. It lists the company's assets, its long-term and short-term (8), and shareholders' (stockholders') funds. A business's assets include (9) as it is assumed that these will be paid. Companies also have intangible assets, whose value is difficult to quantify or turn into cash, such as goodwill, patents, copyrights and trade marks. Liabilities include (10), as these will have to be paid. Long-term liabilities are usually loans and bonds; short-term liabilities include accrued or accumulated expenses that have not yet been paid such as taxes and interest. Negative items on financial statements, such as creditors, taxation, and dividends paid, are either enclosed in brackets or preceded by a minus sign.

In accordance with the principle of double-entry bookkeeping (that all transactions are entered as a credit in one account and as a debit in another), the basic accounting equation is $\text{Assets} = \text{Liabilities} + \text{Owners' (or Shareholders') Equity}$. This can be rewritten as $\text{Assets} - \text{Liabilities} = \text{Owners' Equity or Net Assets}$. This includes share capital (money received from the issue of shares), share premium (GB) or paid-in surplus (US) (any money realized by selling shares at above their nominal value), and the company's reserves, including retained profits from previous years. Shareholders' equity or net assets are generally less than a company's market capitalization (the total value of its shares at any given moment, i.e. the number of shares times their market price), because net assets do not record items such as goodwill.

The third financial statement has various names, including the *funds flow statement*, *source and application of funds statement* (GB), and the *statement of changes in financial position* (US). This shows the flow of cash in and out of the business between balance sheet dates. Companies often distinguish between operating activities, and financing and investment activities. Sources of funds include trading profits, depreciation provisions, sales of assets, borrowing, and the issuing of shares. Applications of funds include purchases of fixed or financial assets, payment of dividends, repayment of loans, and – in a bad year – trading losses.

2c Summarizing

Complete the following sentences.

- 1 Companies record their fixed assets at historical cost because ...
- 2 Historical cost accounting usually underestimates ...
- 3 Countries with a regularly high rate of ...
- 4 Company profits are usually split ...
- 5 Double-entry bookkeeping requires that ...
- 6 A company's net assets consist of ...
- 7 A company's stock market capitalization ...
- 8 Flows of cash both in and out of the company ...

3 Financial statements

These are the 2000 consolidated financial statements of Nokia, the Finnish mobile telephone manufacturer, established according to International Accounting Standards (IAS). (Consolidated means that these statements combine the individual figures of all Nokia group companies.) Nokia's net sales increased by over 50% in 2000 compared to 1999, as the global mobile phone market continued to grow.

The statements printed here are slightly shortened, and include some material from the notes that accompany the statements in Nokia's Annual Report.

There are ten gaps in the three statements below. According to the information in the text in 2b, decide where the following headings should appear:

Accrued expenses Long-term liabilities
Cash and cash equivalents at beginning of period Costs and expenses
Net cash from operating activities Income tax Net profit
Intangible assets Inventories Retained earnings

NOKIA

Consolidated profit and loss account according to international accounting standards (IAS)

Financial year ended December 31 (000's of euros)	2000 EURm	1999 EURm
Net sales	30,376	19,772
1	-24,600	-15,864
Operating profit	5776	3908
Shares of results of associated companies	-16	-5
Financial income and expenses	102	-58
Profit before tax and minority interests	5862	3845
2	-1784	-1189
Minority interests	-140	-79
3	3938	2577

NOKIA

Consolidated balance sheet, IAS

December 31	2000 EURm	1999 EURm
ASSETS		
Fixed assets and other non-current assets	6388	3487
Property, plant & equipment, investments in other companies, deferred tax assets, other assets	4394	2649
4 (Capitalized R&D costs, intangible rights, goodwill, etc.)	1994	838
Current assets	13,502	10,792
5 (Raw materials, supplies, work in progress, and finished goods)	2263	1772
Accounts receivable and pre-paid expenses	7056	4861
Cash and cash equivalents	4183	4159
Total assets	19,890	14,279

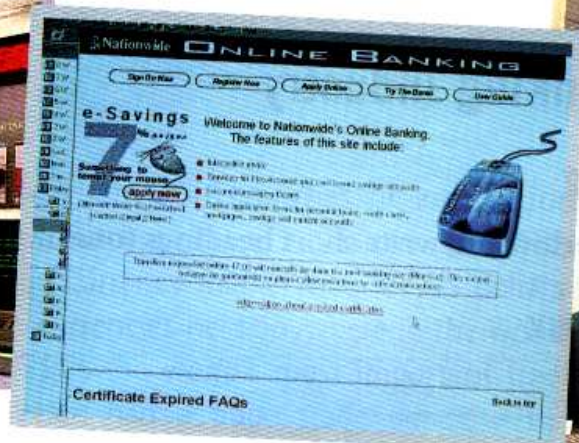
December 31	2000 EURm	1999 EURm
SHAREHOLDERS' EQUITY AND LIABILITIES		
Shareholders' equity	10,808	7378
Share capital	282	279
Share issue premium	1695	1069
Treasury shares	-157	-24
Translation differences	347	243
6 (Bonds, convertible bonds, pension loans, etc.)	8641	5801
Minority shareholders' interests	177	122
7 Long-term interest-bearing liabilities	311	407
(Bonds, convertible bonds, pension loans, etc.)	173	269
Deferred tax liabilities	69	80
Other long-term liabilities	69	58
Current liabilities	8594	6372
Short-term borrowings	1069	792
Current portion of long-term loans	47	1
Accounts payable	2814	2202
8 (VAT liabilities, personnel expenses, discounts, etc.)	4664	3377
Total shareholders' equity and liabilities	19,890	14,279

NOKIA

Consolidated cash flow statement, IAS

Financial year ended December 31	2000 EURm	1999 EURm
Cash flow from operating activities		
Operating profit	5776	3908
Adjustments, total	967	597
Operating profit before change in net working capital	6743	4505
Change in net working capital	-1377	-21
Cash generated from operations	5366	4484
Interest received	255	189
Interest paid	-155	-212
Other financial income and expenses	-454	-113
Income taxes paid	-1543	-1246
9	3509	3102
Cash flow from investing activities		
Acquisition of Group companies, net of acquired cash	-400	-178
Treasury shares acquired	-160	-25
Investments in other shares	-111	-37
Additions in capitalized R&D costs	-393	-271
Capital expenditures	-1580	-1302
Proceeds from disposal of shares in Group companies net of disposed cash	4	27
Proceeds from sale of other shares	75	121
Proceeds from sale of fixed assets	221	318
Dividends received	51	6
Net cash used in investing activities	-2293	-1341
Cash flow from financing activities		
Share issue	72	152
Capital investment by minority shareholders	7	28
Proceeds from and payments of liabilities, borrowings, and receivables	-347	-175
Dividends paid	-1004	-597
Net cash used in financing activities	-1272	-592
Net increase in cash and cash equivalents	-56	1169
10	4239	2990
Cash and cash equivalents at end of period	4183	4159

Unit 14 Banking



1 Personal banking

1a Vocabulary

Match up these terms with the definitions below.

cash card cash dispenser (GB) or ATM (automated teller machine) (US)
 credit card home banking loan mortgage overdraft
 standing order or direct debit
 current account (GB) or checking account (US)
 deposit account (GB) or time or notice account (US)

- 1 an arrangement by which a customer can withdraw more from a bank account than has been deposited in it, up to an agreed limit; interest on the debt is calculated daily
- 2 a card which guarantees payment for goods and services purchased by the cardholder, who pays back the bank or finance company at a later date
- 3 a computerized machine that allows bank customers to withdraw money, check their balance, and so on
- 4 a fixed sum of money on which interest is paid, lent for a fixed period, and usually for a specific purpose
- 5 an instruction to a bank to pay fixed sums of money to certain people or organizations at stated times
- 6 a loan, usually to buy property, which serves as a security for the loan
- 7 a plastic card issued to bank customers for use in cash dispensers
- 8 doing banking transactions by telephone or from one's own personal computer
- 9 one that generally pays little or no interest, but allows the holder to withdraw his or her cash without any restrictions
- 10 one that pays interest, but usually cannot be used for paying cheques (GB) or checks (US), and on which notice is often required to withdraw money

1b Discussion

- 1 Which of the banking facilities listed in 1a do you use?
- 2 What other services do commercial banks offer in your country?
- 3 What changes have there been in personal banking recently?
- 4 What further changes do you foresee in the future?

2 The banking industry

2a Reading

Read the text below and write short headings (one or two words) for each paragraph.

TYPES OF BANK

1

Commercial or retail banks are businesses that trade in money. They receive and hold deposits, pay money according to customers' instructions, lend money, offer investment advice, exchange foreign currencies, and so on. They make a profit from the difference (known as a spread or a margin) between the interest rates they pay to lenders or depositors and those they charge to borrowers. Banks also create credit, because the money they lend, from their deposits, is generally spent (either on goods or services, or to settle debts), and in this way transferred to another bank account – often by way of a bank transfer or a cheque (check) rather than the use of notes or coins – from where it can be lent to another borrower, and so on. When lending money, bankers have to find a balance between yield and risk, and between liquidity and different maturities.

2

Investment banks, often called merchant banks in Britain, raise funds for industry on the various financial markets, finance international trade, issue and underwrite securities, deal with takeovers and mergers, and issue government bonds. They also generally offer stockbroking and portfolio management services to rich corporate and individual clients. Investment banks make their profits from the fees and commissions they charge for their services.

3

In some European countries (notably Germany, Switzerland and Austria) there have always been universal banks combining deposit and loan banking with share and bond dealing and investment services, but for much of the 20th century, American legislation enforced a strict separation between commercial and investment banks. The Glass-Steagall Act, passed during the Depression in 1934, prevented commercial banks from underwriting securities. This act was repealed in 1999. The Japanese equivalent was abolished the previous year, and the banking industry in Britain was also deregulated in the 1990s, and financial conglomerates now combine the services previously offered by banks, stockbrokers, and insurance companies.

4

A country's minimum interest rate is usually fixed by the central bank. This is the discount rate, at which the central bank makes secured loans to commercial banks. Banks lend to blue chip borrowers (very safe large companies) at the base rate or the prime rate; all other borrowers pay more, depending on their credit standing (or credit rating, or creditworthiness): the lender's estimation of their present and future solvency. Borrowers can usually get a lower interest rate if the loan is secured or guaranteed by some kind of asset, known as collateral.

5

In most financial centres, there are also branches of lots of foreign banks, largely doing Eurocurrency business. A Eurocurrency is any currency held outside its country of origin. The first significant Eurocurrency market was for US dollars in Europe, but the name is now used for foreign currencies held anywhere in the world (e.g. yen in the US, euros in Japan). Since the US\$ is the world's most important trading currency – and because the US for many years had a huge trade deficit – there is a market of many billions of Eurodollars, including the oil-exporting countries' 'petrodollars'. Although a central bank can determine the minimum lending rate for its national currency it has no control over foreign currencies. Furthermore, banks are not obliged to deposit any of their Eurocurrency assets at 0% interest with the central bank, which means that they can usually offer better rates to borrowers and depositors than in the home country.

2b Comprehension

Which of the following three paragraphs most accurately and concisely summarizes the text, and what is wrong with the others?

First summary:

Commercial banks hold customers' deposits and make loans. Investment banks raise funds for industry. Deregulation in Britain and the US has led to the creation of financial conglomerates similar to the universal banks that have always existed in German-speaking countries. A country's minimum interest rate is usually fixed; banks charge progressively higher rates to less secure borrowers. Many banks also do Eurocurrency business – lending foreign currencies, notably dollars, at lower rates than in the currencies' home countries.

Second summary:

Commercial banks receive deposits and make loans. Investment banks arrange security issues and offer other investment services. Yet the traditional distinction between commercial and investment banks has now broken down. Domestic interest rates are fixed by central banks. Many banks also have branches abroad that do Eurocurrency business, making loans in other European currencies.

Third summary:

Commercial banks receive deposits, lend money, and provide other services. Merchant and investment banks lend money to industry. British and American banks are now joining together in conglomerates. The interest rates that banks charge depend on the borrowers' creditworthiness. European banks also do a lot of Eurodollar and petrodollar business.

2c Vocabulary

Find the words or expressions in the text in 2a which mean the following.

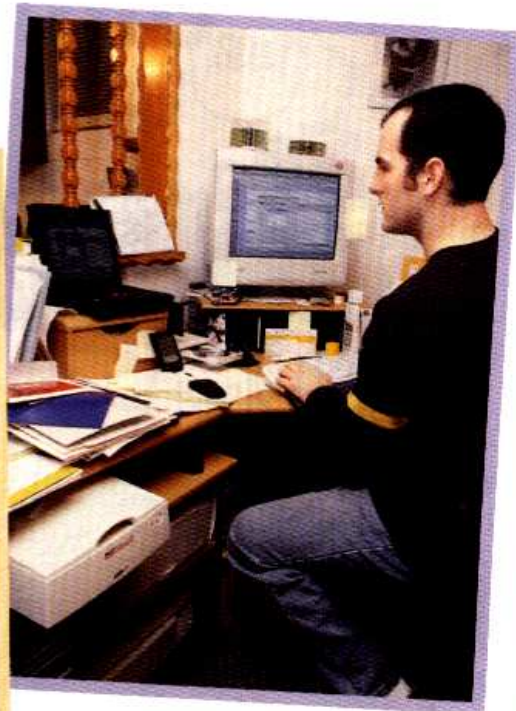
- 1 to place money in a bank; or money placed in a bank
- 2 the money used in countries other than one's own
- 3 how much money a loan pays, expressed as a percentage
- 4 available cash, and how easily other assets can be turned into cash
- 5 the date when a loan becomes repayable
- 6 to guarantee to buy all the new shares that a company issues, if they cannot be sold to the public
- 7 when a company buys or acquires another one
- 8 when a company combines with another one
- 9 buying and selling stocks or shares for clients
- 10 taking care of all a client's investments
- 11 the ending or relaxing of legal restrictions
- 12 a group of companies, operating in different fields, that have joined together
- 13 a company considered to be without risk
- 14 ability to pay liabilities when they become due
- 15 anything that acts as a security or a guarantee for a loan

2d Vocabulary

The text in 2a contains a number of common verb-noun partnerships (e.g. to lend money, to finance international trade). Match up the verbs and nouns below to make common collocations.

charge	advice
do	bonds
exchange	business
issue	currencies
make	deposits
offer	funds
pay	interest
raise	loans
receive	profits
underwrite	security issues

3 Getting a loan



Role play

Three different groups of inexperienced young business people in a small town require capital for their businesses. They all apply to the local branch of Megabank.

The three groups of would-be borrowers must develop financial arguments that they think will convince the bankers. The group preparing the role of the bankers has to think of questions about the viability of the future businesses: will they be successful, and why? Or why might they not be successful?

The roles are:

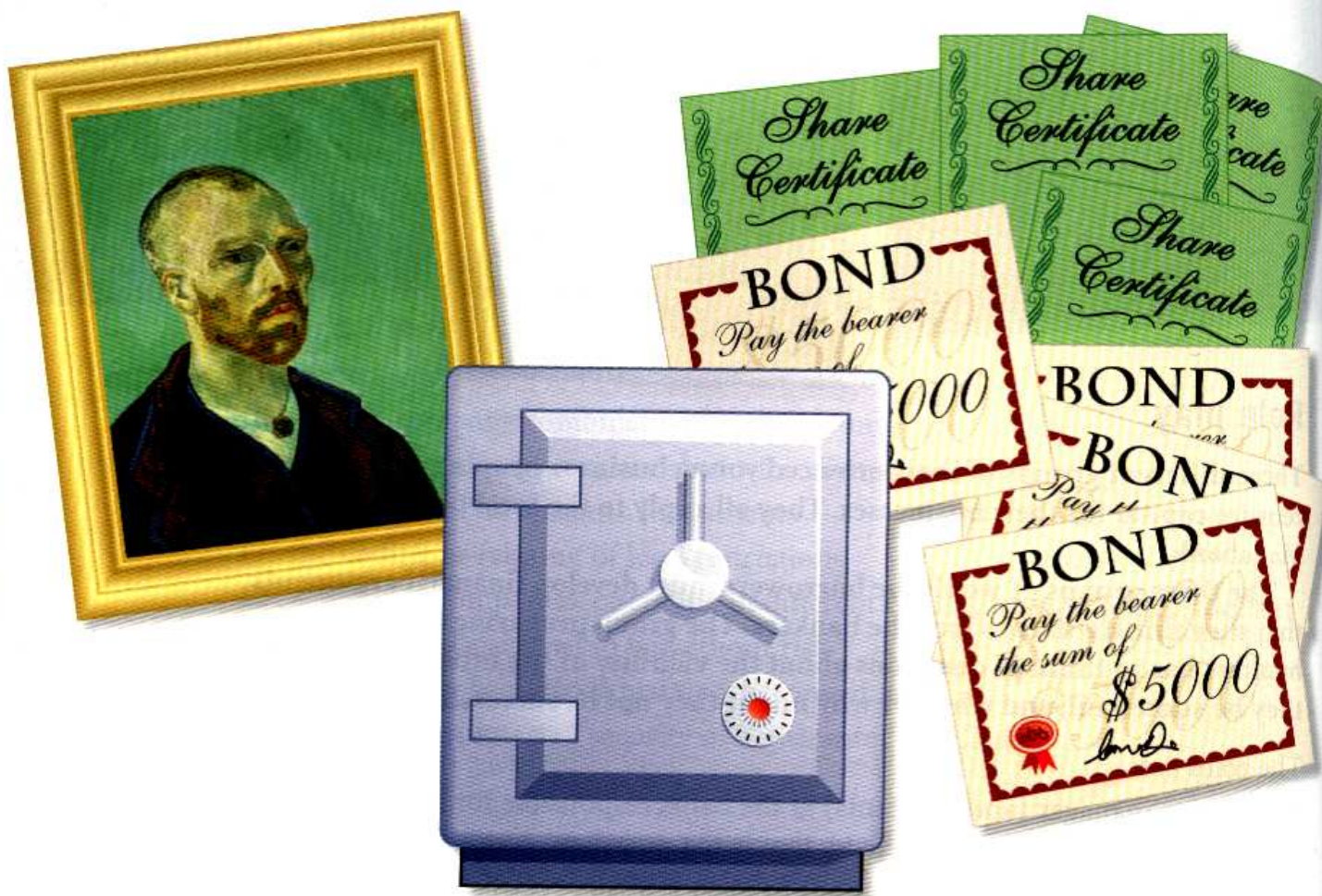
- 1 A junior manager (and assistants) at the bank, responsible for new local small businesses. To lend or not to lend, that is the question.
- 2 A group of young people who want to open a small specialist record shop selling CDs of dance music.
- 3 A group of young people who want to buy an existing take-away pizza business (the lease on the premises, the kitchens, the delivery scooters, and so on). The business is profitable, and well-known in the town, with loyal customers. The new owners can keep the same telephone number, and either keep or change the name.
- 4 A group of students who already operate a part-time computing consultancy service, advising small businesses on what hardware and software to buy, and how to set up a website. They want to borrow money to buy more computers for themselves, on which to try out elaborate new software programs.

Your teacher will give you further details about the roles (from the Teacher's Book). You have to prepare your questions or arguments in a group, after which one or two members of the groups of borrowers will be chosen to negotiate with the bankers.

Unit 15 Stocks and shares

1 Issuing stocks and shares

1a Discussion



If you possess a large amount of money, what are the advantages and disadvantages of the following?

- putting it under the mattress
- buying a lottery ticket
- taking it all to Las Vegas or Monte Carlo
- putting it in a bank
- buying gold
- buying a Van Gogh painting
- investing in property or real estate
- buying bonds
- buying shares

1b Reading

Read the following text and answer the questions.

- 1 Why do people form limited companies?
- 2 Why do companies issue shares?
- 3 Why do people buy the shares?

COMPANIES

Individuals, and groups of people doing business as a partnership, have unlimited liability for debts, unless they form a limited company. If the business does badly and cannot pay its debts, any creditor can have it declared bankrupt. The unsuccessful business people may have to sell nearly all their possessions in order to pay their debts. This is why most people doing business

form limited companies. A limited company is a legal entity separate from its owners, and is only liable for the amount of capital that has been invested in it. If a limited company goes bankrupt, it is wound up and its assets are liquidated (i.e. sold) to pay the debts. If the assets don't cover the liabilities or the debts, they remain unpaid. The creditors simply do not get all their money back.

Most companies begin as *private* limited companies. Their owners have to put up the capital themselves, or borrow from friends or a bank, perhaps a bank specializing in venture capital. The founders have to write a Memorandum of Association (GB) or a Certificate of Incorporation (US), which states the company's name, its purpose, its registered office or premises, and the amount of authorized share capital. They also write Articles of Association (GB) or Bylaws (US), which set out the duties of directors and the rights of shareholders (GB) or stockholders (US). They send these documents to the registrar of companies.

A successful, growing company can apply to a stock exchange to become a *public* limited company (GB) or a listed company (US). Newer and smaller companies usually join 'over-the-counter' markets, such as the Alternative Investment Market in London or Nasdaq in New York. Very successful businesses can apply to be quoted or listed (i.e. to have their shares traded) on major stock exchanges. Publicly quoted companies have to fulfil a large number of requirements, including sending their shareholders an independently-audited report every year, containing the year's trading results and a statement of their financial position.

The act of issuing shares (GB) or stocks (US) for the first time is known as floating a company (making a flotation). Companies generally use an investment bank to underwrite the issue, i.e. to guarantee to purchase all the securities at an agreed price on a certain day, if they cannot be sold to the public.

Companies wishing to raise more money for expansion can sometimes issue new shares, which are normally offered first to existing shareholders at less than their market price. This is known as a rights issue. Companies sometimes also choose to capitalize part of their profit, i.e. turn it into capital, by issuing new shares to shareholders instead of paying dividends. This is known as a bonus issue.

Buying a share gives its holder part of the ownership of a company. Shares generally entitle their owners to vote at a company's Annual General Meeting (GB) or Annual Meeting of Stockholders (US), and to receive a proportion of distributed profits in the form of a dividend – or to receive part of the company's residual value if it goes into liquidation. Shareholders can sell their shares on the secondary market at any time, but the market price of a share – the price quoted at any given time on the stock exchange, which reflects (more or less) how well or badly the company is doing – may differ radically from its nominal value.

JUST A NORMAL DAY AT THE NATION'S MOST IMPORTANT FINANCIAL INSTITUTION...



1c Comprehension

Write questions that could produce the following answers.

- 1 They have to send their shareholders a report at the end of every financial year, including independently-audited financial statements, and hold an annual general meeting.
- 2 A market for young or small companies which do not want to have their shares traded on the major stock exchanges.
- 3 It issues new shares, offering them to existing shareholders first.
- 4 It's when a company chooses to issue new shares to existing shareholders *rather than pay them a dividend*.
- 5 They are generally entitled to vote at companies' General Meetings and to receive a dividend if the company makes a profit.

1d Vocabulary

Find words in the text which mean the following.

- 1 having a responsibility or an obligation to do something, e.g. to pay a debt
- 2 a person or organization to whom money is owed (for goods or services rendered, or as repayment of a loan)
- 3 to be insolvent: unable to pay debts
- 4 everything of value owned by a business that can be used to produce goods, pay liabilities, and so on
- 5 to sell all the possessions of a bankrupt business
- 6 money that a company will have to pay to someone else (bills, taxes, debts, interest and mortgage payments, etc.)
- 7 to provide money for a company or other project
- 8 money invested in a possibly risky new business
- 9 the people who begin a new company
- 10 the place in which a company does business: an office, shop, workshop, factory, warehouse, and so on
- 11 to guarantee to buy an entire new share issue, if no one else wants it
- 12 a proportion of the annual profits of a limited company, paid to shareholders

ALTERNATIVE TERMINOLOGY:

Americans often talk about *corporations* rather than *companies* and about an *initial public offering* rather than a *flotation*.

Another name for *stocks* and *shares* is *equities*, because all the stocks or shares of a company – or at least all those of a particular category – have equal value.

Two other terms for *nominal value* are *face value* and *par value*.

Other names for a *bonus issue* are a *scrip issue* (short for 'subscription certificate') and a *capitalization issue*, and in the US, a *stock dividend* or *stock split*.

2 Stock markets

2a Listening

Listen to an extract from a midday financial market report on television. The newsreader mentions the prices of the following securities, currencies and commodities. In each case, does she say that the price has risen, fallen, or stayed almost the same?

	Risen	Fallen	Unchanged
Shares in London			
Shares in Frankfurt			
Shares in Paris			
Shares in New York			
The dollar against the euro			
The dollar against the yen			
The euro against the Swiss franc			
The euro against the yen			
Bonds in New York			
Bonds in Frankfurt			
Gold			
Oil			

2b Vocabulary

Rather than endlessly repeating the words 'rose' and 'fell', financial journalists use a large number of verbs and phrases to describe the movements of security prices. Classify the following sentences, according to whether you think the verb or expression means:

- A to rise after previously falling
- B to rise a little
- C to rise a lot
- D to fall a little
- E to fall a lot

- 1 Boeing stocks rocketed after rumours of a forthcoming merger with another leading aircraft manufacturer.
- 2 The Dow-Jones index crashed after continuing rumours about the President's health.
- 3 Exxon stocks shot up after a new deal to pump Siberian natural gas was announced.
- 4 The Footsie rallied in London in the afternoon, gaining 30 points in late trading.
- 5 Grundig shares slipped after the news of boardroom changes.

- 6 In Paris, the CAC-40 plummeted, after the unions called for a three-day general strike next week.
- 7 Leading shares were slightly weaker in Tokyo, the Nikkei losing six points.
- 8 Most shares were a little stronger in Milan this morning, when the exchange reopened after yesterday's public holiday.
- 9 On the Frankfurt exchange, the DAX index finished slightly firmer, up 12 points.
- 10 Philips shares jumped after the company revealed that it was negotiating a new licensing deal with Sony.
- 11 Procter & Gamble stocks plunged after it was revealed that the company had lost over \$100 million as a result of a derivative deal.
- 12 Share prices recovered in Hong Kong today, the Hang Seng finishing up ten points.

2c Vocabulary

Match up the following words and definitions.

blue chip defensive stock growth stock insider share-dealing
institutional investors mutual fund market-maker portfolio
stockbroker

- 1 a company that spreads investors' capital over a variety of securities
- 2 an investor's selection of securities
- 3 a person who can advise investors and buy and sell shares for them
- 4 a stock in a large company or corporation that is considered to be a secure investment
- 5 a stock – in an industry not much affected by cyclical trends – that offers a good return but only a limited chance of a rise or decline in price
- 6 a stock – which usually has a high purchasing price and a low current rate of return – that is expected to appreciate in capital value
- 7 a wholesaler in stocks and shares who deals with brokers
- 8 financial organizations such as pension funds and insurance companies which own most of the shares of all leading companies (over 60%, and rising)
- 9 the use of information not known to the public to make a profit out of buying or selling shares

2d Vocabulary

There is a logical connection among three of the four words in each of the following groups. Which is the odd one out, and why?

- 1 annual report – external auditors – financial statements – stockbroker
- 2 blue chip – defensive stock – growth stock – rights issue
- 3 bonus issue – dividend – over-the-counter – shareholder
- 4 creditor – market-maker – shareholder – stockbroker

- 5 debt – equity – share – stock
- 6 face value – market value – nominal value – par value
- 7 float – liquidation – share issue – underwriter
- 8 institutional investor – insurance company – liabilities – pension fund
- 9 mutual fund – portfolio – risk – underwriter

2e Discussion

Imagine that you have just come from a secret meeting of a company's board of directors, which has made a decision that you know will financially ruin a close friend of yours unless she can sell some shares before the board's decision becomes known. You are having dinner at her home that same evening. Should she expect you to warn her? Should you do so?

2f Case study: Ethical investments

Imagine that a relative, who knows very little about finance, asks you to invest \$10,000 for her in a portfolio of investments, but insists that she only wants her money invested in 'wholly ethical companies'.

Which of the following activities would cause you to rule out a company as a possible investment?

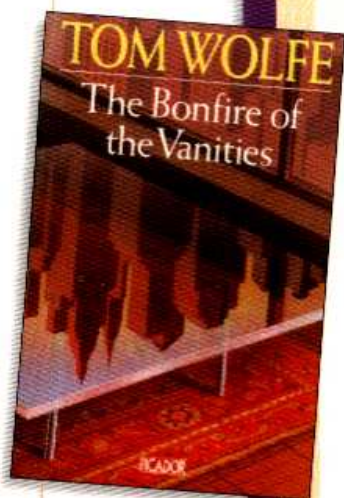
- emitting a large quantity of CO₂ into the atmosphere
- factory farming
- making donations to political parties
- manufacturing weapons
- marketing powdered baby milk in countries without pure water supplies
- not recognizing trade unions
- paying low wage levels in developing countries
- producing nuclear energy
- selling alcohol
- selling tobacco
- relocating production to countries with lower labour costs
- testing cosmetic products on animals
- trading with oppressive regimes

Unit 16 Bonds

1 Defining bonds

1a Reading

In Tom Wolfe's novel, *The Bonfire of the Vanities*, Sherman McCoy is a bond dealer in New York. One weekend his six-year-old daughter comes up with a question.



'Daddy . . . what do you do?'

'Well, I deal in *bonds*, sweetheart. I buy them, I sell them, I —'

'What are bonds? What is deal?'

'Well, honey, bonds are — a bond is — well, let me see, what's the best way to explain it to you . . . A bond is a way of loaning people money. Let's say you want to build a road, and it's not a little road but a big highway, like the highway we took up to Maine last summer. Or you want to build a big hospital. Well, that requires a lot of money, more money than you could ever get just by going to a bank. So what you do is, you issue what are called bonds.'

'You build roads and hospitals, Daddy? That's what you do?'

'No, I don't actually build them, sweetheart. I handle the bonds, and the bonds are what make it possible —'

'You *help* build them?'

'Well, in a way.'

'Which ones?'

'Which *ones*?'

'You said roads and hospitals.'

'Well not any one specifically.'

'The road to Maine?'

(Tom Wolfe: *The Bonfire of the Vanities*)



1b Listening

Can *you* explain what bonds are — to an adult rather than a six-year-old? If not, listen to Richard Mahoney, a Vice-President with J.P. Morgan and Co. in New York.

Listen to the interview, and answer the following questions.

- 1 What is the difference between bonds and stocks, in terms of income and repayment?
- 2 What are the three types of investor clients mentioned?
- 3 Mahoney gives examples of types of investments that generally carry very low, moderate, and higher risk. What are they?
- 4 What causes bonds to appreciate and depreciate in price?

 Richard Mahoney of the New York financial services company J. P. Morgan

1c Vocabulary

Match up the words or phrases on the left with the corresponding ones on the right.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1 investors | A the amount of a loan |
| 2 issuing bonds | B borrowing money |
| 3 principal | C date at which the money will be returned |
| 4 maturity | D fall in interest rates |
| 5 pension funds | E keep their bonds till maturity |
| 6 buy-and-hold investors | F default |
| 7 non-payment | G profits on the sale of assets |
| 8 price appreciation | H providers of funds |
| 9 price depreciation | I retirement money |
| 10 capital gains | J rise in interest rates |

1d Discussion

- 1 What do you expect to happen to interest rates in your country (or continent) in the foreseeable future, and why?
- 2 Could *you* explain bond dealing to a child better than Sherman McCoy? If you work in business and have children, you might easily find yourself in the same situation as Tom Wolfe's character one day. How would you explain the following jobs to a six-year-old?
 - bond dealer
 - stockbroker
 - internal auditor
 - personnel manager
 - trade union organizer
 - market researcher

2 The uses of bonds

2a Reading

Read the text below and answer the following questions.

- 1 Why do most companies use a mixture of debt and equity financing?
- 2 Why do governments issue bonds?

BONDS

Companies finance most of their activities by way of internally generated cash flows. If they need more money they can either sell shares or borrow, usually by issuing bonds. More and more companies now issue their own bonds rather than borrow from banks, because this is often cheaper: the market may be a better judge of the firm's creditworthiness than a bank, i.e. it may lend money at a lower interest rate. This is evidently not a good thing for the banks, which now have to lend large amounts of money to borrowers that are much less secure than blue chip companies.

Bond-issuing companies are rated by private ratings companies such as Moody's and

Standard & Poors, and given an 'investment grade' according to their financial situation and performance, AAA being the best, and C the worst, i.e. nearly bankrupt. Obviously, the higher the rating, the lower the interest rate at which a company can borrow.

Most bonds are bearer certificates, so after being issued (on the primary market), they can be traded on the secondary bond market until they mature. Bonds are therefore liquid, although of course their price on the secondary market fluctuates according to changes in interest rates. Consequently, the majority of bonds on the secondary market are traded either above or below par. A bond's yield at any particular time is thus its coupon (the amount of interest it pays) expressed as a percentage of its price on the secondary market.

For companies, the advantage of debt financing over equity financing is that bond interest is tax deductible. In other words, a company deducts its interest payments from its profits before paying tax, whereas dividends are paid out of already-taxed profits. Apart from this 'tax shield', it is generally considered to be a sign of good health and anticipated higher future profits if a company borrows. On the other hand, increasing debt increases financial risk: bond interest has to be paid, even in a year without any profits from which to deduct it, and the principal has to be repaid when the debt matures, whereas companies are not obliged to pay dividends or repay share capital. Thus companies have a debt-equity ratio that is determined by balancing tax savings against the risk of being declared bankrupt by creditors.

Governments, of course, unlike companies, do not have the option of issuing equities. Consequently they issue bonds when public spending exceeds receipts from income tax, VAT, and so on. Long-term government bonds are known as gilt-edged securities, or simply gilts, in Britain, and Treasury Bonds in the US. The British and American central banks also sell and buy short-term (three month) Treasury Bills as a way of regulating the money supply. To reduce the money supply, they sell these bills to commercial banks, and withdraw the cash received from circulation; to increase the money supply they buy them back, paying with newly created money which is put into circulation in this way.

2b Comprehension

In each case, which of the three statements is TRUE?

- 1 Banks' loan portfolios are now generally less secure than 20 years ago
 - A because bankers are becoming irresponsible.
 - B because blue chip companies are becoming irresponsible.
 - C because blue chip companies issue their own bonds, and banks that receive deposits still have to lend money.
- 2 Bondholders can
 - A only get their money back when the bond matures.
 - B get their money back at any time.
 - C try to get their money back at any time.
- 3 If interest rates
 - A rise above a bond's coupon, the bond will probably sell at above par.
 - B fall below a bond's coupon, the bond will probably sell at above par.
 - C rise above a bond's coupon, its yield will normally decrease.

- 4 The fiscal system in most countries makes it advantageous for companies
- A to issue bonds rather than borrow from a bank.
 - B to issue stocks or shares rather than bonds as long as they don't make a loss.
 - C to issue bonds rather than stocks or shares as long as they make a profit.
- 5
- A Governments systematically issue bonds to finance public spending.
 - B Governments issue bonds to finance public spending when necessary.
 - C Governments or central banks regularly issue bonds to increase the money supply.

2c Vocabulary

Match up the expressions on the left with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|----------------------|--|
| 1 equity financing | A a security whose owner is not registered with the issuer |
| 2 debt financing | B easily sold (turned into cash) |
| 3 bearer certificate | C the rate of interest paid by a fixed interest security |
| 4 liquid | D the rate of income an investor receives taking into |
| 5 par | account a security's current price |
| 6 coupon | E issuing bonds |
| 7 yield | F issuing shares |
| | G nominal or face value (100%) |

2d Listening and discussion: Types of bonds

Listen to Richard Mahoney again, defining three different types of bonds.
After listening to the definitions, try to work out:

- 1 When would companies be interested in issuing floating rate notes?
- 2 When would investors be interested in buying floating rate notes?
- 3 When would investors be interested in buying convertible bonds?
- 4 Why might companies be interested in issuing convertible bonds?
- 5 What kind of investor would be interested in buying junk bonds?

Unit 17 Futures and derivatives

▶ The price of this coffee was probably fixed several months ago on the futures market.



1 Defining futures and derivatives

1a Vocabulary

Match up the following words and definitions.

- | | |
|---------------|---|
| 1 futures | A contracts giving the right, but not the obligation, to buy or sell a security, a currency, or a commodity at a fixed price during a certain period of time |
| 2 options | B contracts to buy or sell fixed quantities of a commodity, currency, or financial asset at a future date, at a price fixed at the time of making the contract |
| 3 commodities | C a general name for all financial instruments whose price depends on the movement of another price |
| 4 derivatives | D buying securities or other assets in the hope of making a capital gain by selling them at a higher price (or selling them in the hope of buying them back at a lower price) |
| 5 hedging | E making contracts to buy or sell a commodity or financial asset at a pre-arranged price in the future as a protection or 'insurance' against price changes |
| 6 speculation | F raw materials or primary products (metals, cereals, coffee, etc.) that are traded on special markets |

1b Reading

Select ten or eleven of the following words that you would expect to find in an introductory text about futures and options.

assets beer bush call commodities contracts
copper currencies discount discount store foodstuffs
hedge liabilities plastic phone raw materials
shout spot market supermarket tea

Now read the text, and see if you find the words you selected.

FUTURES, OPTIONS AND SWAPS

Futures

Every weekday, enormous amounts of commodities, currencies and financial securities are traded for immediate delivery at their current price on spot markets. Yet there are also futures markets on which contracts can be made to buy and sell commodities, currencies, and various financial assets, at a future date (e.g. three, six or nine months ahead), but with the price fixed at the time of the deal. Standardized deals for fixed quantities and time periods (e.g. 25 tons of copper to be delivered next June 30) are called futures; individual, non-standard, 'over-the-counter' deals between two parties (e.g. 1.7 billion yen to be exchanged for dollars on September 15, at a rate set today) are called forward contracts.

Hedging and speculating

Futures, options and other derivatives exist in order that companies and individuals may attempt to diminish the effects of, or profit from, future changes in commodity and asset prices, exchange rates, interest rates, and so on. For example, the prices of foodstuffs such as wheat, maize, cocoa, coffee, tea and orange juice are frequently affected by droughts, floods and other extreme weather conditions. Consequently many producers and buyers of raw materials want to hedge, in order to guarantee next season's prices. When commodity prices are expected to rise, future prices are obviously higher than (at a premium on) spot prices; when they are expected to fall they are at a discount on spot prices.

In recent years, especially since financial deregulation, exchange rates and interest rates have also fluctuated wildly. Many businesses, therefore, want to buy or sell currencies at a guaranteed future price. Speculators, anticipating currency appreciations or depreciations, or interest rate movements, are also active in currency futures markets, such as the London International Financial Futures Exchange (LIFFE, pronounced 'life').

Options

As well as currencies and commodities, there is now a huge futures market in stocks and shares. One can buy options giving the right – but not the obligation – to buy and sell securities at a fixed price in the future. A call option gives the right to buy securities (or a currency, or a commodity) at a certain price during a certain period of time. A put option gives the right to sell an asset at a certain price during a certain period of time. These options allow organizations to hedge their equity investments.

For example, if you think a share worth 100 will rise, you can buy a call option giving the right to buy at 100, hoping to sell this option, or to buy and resell the share at a profit. Alternatively, you can write a put option giving someone else the right to sell the shares at 100: if the market price remains above 100, no one will exercise the option, so you earn the premium.

On the contrary, if you expect the value of a share that you own to fall below its current price of 100, you can buy a put option at 100 (or higher): if the price falls, you can still sell your shares at this price. Alternatively, you could write a call option giving someone else the right to buy the share at 100: if the market price of the underlying security remains below the option's exercise price or strike price, no one will take up the option, and you earn the premium.

Swaps

Options are merely one type of derivative instrument, based on another underlying price. Many companies nowadays also arrange currency swaps and interest rate swaps with other companies or financial institutions. For example, a French company that can borrow francs at a preferential rate, but which also needs yen, can arrange a swap with a Japanese company in the opposite position. Such currency swaps, designed to achieve interest rate savings, are of course open to the risk of exchange rate fluctuations. A company with a lot of fixed interest debt might choose to exchange some of it for another company's floating rate loans. Whether they save or lose money will depend on the movement of interest rates.

1c Summarizing

Complete the following sentences.

- 1 The difference between futures and forward contracts is . . .
- 2 Producers and buyers often choose to hedge because . . .
- 3 Speculators can make money on currency futures if . . .
- 4 If you believe that a share price will rise, possible option strategies include . . .
- 5 On the contrary, if you think a share price will fall, possible option strategies include . . .
- 6 The risk with currency and interest rate swaps is that . . .

1d Vocabulary

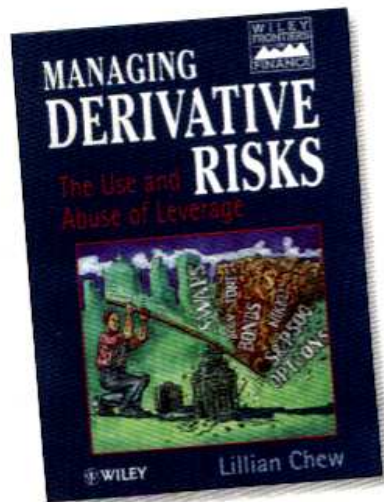
Find words in the text that are in an obvious sense the *opposite* of the terms below.

<i>appreciate</i>	<i>call</i>	<i>discount</i>	<i>drought</i>
<i>floating</i>	<i>hedging</i>	<i>spot market</i>	<i>strike price</i>

2 The dangers of derivatives

In the 1990s, various companies, local governments and financial institutions made spectacular losses with derivatives. The most famous was Barings Bank, which was bankrupted when a single trader in Singapore lost over \$1 billion by speculating disastrously on futures and options on the Nikkei 225 stock index, which is traded in Osaka and Singapore. You will hear an extract from a talk by a financial journalist about what companies and banks can do to prevent such losses.

Lillian Chew, originally from Malaysia, was formerly editor of *Risk* magazine in London, and is the author of *Managing Derivative Risks*.



NOTE: Lillian Chew uses several abbreviations. 'P&G' is Procter & Gamble, which lost over \$100 million on interest rate swaps. 'P&L' is short for the profit and loss account. The 'SEC' is the Securities and Exchange Commission, which regulates American stock markets. 'ISDA' is the International Swaps and Derivatives Association.

2a Listening

Listen to the first part of the talk by Lillian Chew, and then decide whether the following statements are **TRUE** or **FALSE**, according to what she says.

- 1 The fault lies with the banks who sell derivatives rather than the buyers.
- 2 Companies have lost money with derivatives because they took on risks they didn't understand.
- 3 Companies have used derivatives for purposes other than those they were designed for.
- 4 Companies ought to use the same derivative for both hedging and speculating.

2b Vocabulary

Read the following extract from the talk while listening to the second part, and then match up the expressions in *italics* with the definitions or synonyms below.

If it's a hedge you manage it passively, you don't worry too much if rates move against you or in your favour. If it's not a hedge, if it's to take on, if a derivative is used to (1) *take on risk, to increase returns*, then it requires a more (2) *hands-on* management approach. You need (3) *stop-loss limits*, you need to conduct (4) *scenario analysis* to see how that transaction behaves under various conditions, you need to conduct (5) *sensitivity analysis* to see ... what market conditions they're most sensitive to. And then you have to judge whether the P&L impact of that transaction can be (6) *withstood* in the firm. Or as in P&G's case whether cost savings generated are worth the (7) *open-ended exposure*. I think there's also a need for management to give the front line personnel relevant guidelines for all activities.

I think the industry realizes that it has to police itself. I think they realize that if they don't police themselves the regulators will come on, on them. I think that's why we've seen the framework for (8) *voluntary oversight* from the SEC-registered companies as well as ISDA's code of conduct, as well as the Bankers' Trust-Federal Reserve sales agreement. I think all these codes of conduct embody the principle that the major risks of a transaction have to be explained to customers, and that sensitivity and scenario analysis are offered (9) *unsolicited* to customers, and that these analyses should be done as objectively as possible.

- A a study of all the potential consequences of a derivative contract
- B a study of the particular market changes which could affect the outcome of a derivative contract
- C active, interventionary
- D even if nobody asks for it
- E restrictions on the amount you can lose if the underlying price changes
- F self-regulation by the financial industry
- G speculate
- H supported
- I unlimited risk



"A billion is a thousand million? Why wasn't I informed of this?"

2c Comprehension

Listen to the third part of the talk and answer these questions.

- 1 Lillian Chew says that the image of the derivatives industry has been *tarnished* or damaged, but this is a good thing. Why?
- 2 Which of the following does Lillian Chew say?
 - A Front line financial managers and derivatives traders must explain derivative use to senior management.
 - B Senior management must explain derivative use to front line financial managers.
 - C Senior management alone must determine derivative policy.
 - D Senior management and front line managers together must determine derivative policy.

2d Discussion

- 1 What particular skills do you think financial managers, investment advisers, securities traders, and professional speculators need?
- 2 Do you think you possess them? Would you be successful in any of these careers?
- 3 Do you like taking risks or working under stress?
- 4 Would you be prepared to try to sell financial instruments which contained potential risks that customers may misunderstand or underestimate?

2e Reading

Read the following extract from *Liar's Poker*, Michael Lewis's book about his time as a bond salesman in a large American investment bank, which explains the attraction of options and futures to speculators.

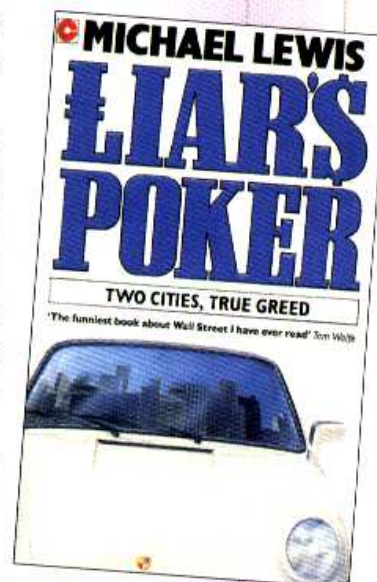
What is Lewis's view of European investors?

Several dozen phone lights flashed continually on our telephone boards. European investors (I shall refer to them as 'investors' or 'customers' even though most of them were pure speculators and the rest not-so-pure speculators) wanted to place their bets on the American bond market from eight in the morning until eight at night.

There was good reason for their eagerness. The American bond market was shooting through the roof. Imagine how crowds would overwhelm a casino in which everyone who plays wins big, and you'll have some idea of what our unit was like in those days. The attraction of options and futures, our speciality item, was that they offered both liquidity and fantastic leverage. They were a mechanism for gambling in the bond markets, like superchips in a casino that represent a thousand dollars but cost only three. In fact, there are no superchips in casinos; options and futures have no equivalent in the world of professional gambling because real casinos would consider the leverage they offer imprudent. For a tiny down-payment, a buyer of a futures contract takes the same risk as in owning a large number of bonds; in a heartbeat he can double or lose his money.

When it came to speculation, European investors didn't require a great deal of encouragement or instruction. They'd been doing crazy things with money for centuries. The French and English, in particular, shared a weakness for get-rich-quick schemes.

(Michael Lewis: *Liar's Poker*)



2f Comprehension

- 1 What do you think Lewis means when he says of his customers that 'most of them were pure speculators and the rest not-so-pure speculators'?
- 2 In transactions such as these, what is *leverage*?
- 3 Why is there no equivalent of futures or options in the gambling industry?

Unit 18 Market structure and competition

1 Market structure



1a Discussion

Think of some durable consumer goods that your family possesses – perhaps a car, a television, a stereo, a camera, a personal computer, a cooker, a fridge, a hair dryer, and so on. Think of your casual clothes, especially jeans and sports shoes. Think of toys you had as a child. Think of the brands of food and drink you habitually consume, including breakfast cereals, chocolate, tea and instant coffee. Think of the products you use to wash yourself and your clothes.

In each case, do you know whether the company that makes them is one of the following?

- the *market leader* (with the biggest market share)
- the *market challenger* (the second-biggest company in the industry)
- one of many smaller *market followers*

If you buy or have bought products that are *not* produced by the market leader or a well-known market challenger, what is the reason?

- chance
- price
- because the product has a 'unique selling proposition' that appeals to you
- because you need something special, and are part of a particular niche or market segment

Give examples.

1b Reading

Read the following text and write short headings for each paragraph.

MARKET LEADERS, CHALLENGERS AND FOLLOWERS

1

In most markets there is a definite market leader: the firm with the largest market share. This is often the first company to have entered the field, or at least the first to have succeeded in it. The market leader is frequently able to lead other firms in the introduction of new products, in price changes, in the level or intensity of promotions, and so on.

2

Market leaders usually want to increase their market share even further, or at least to protect their current market share. One way to do this is to try to find ways to increase the size of the entire market. Contrary to a common belief, wholly dominating a market, or having a monopoly, is seldom an advantage: competitors expand markets and find new uses and users for products, which enriches everyone in the field, but the market leader more than its competitors. A market can also be expanded by stimulating more usage: for example, many households no longer have only one radio or cassette player, but perhaps one in each room, one in the car, plus a minidisc player or a Walkman or two.

3

In many markets, there is often also a distinct market challenger, with the second-largest market share. In the car hire business, the challenger actually advertises this fact: for many years Avis used the slogan 'We're number two. We try harder.' Market challengers can either attempt to attack the leader, or to increase their market share by attacking various market followers.

4

The majority of companies in any industry are merely market followers which present no threat to the leader. Many market followers concentrate on market segmentation: finding a profitable niche in the market that is not satisfied by other goods or services, and that offers growth potential or gives the company a differential advantage because of its specific competencies.

5

A market follower which does not establish its own niche is in a vulnerable position: if its product does not have a 'unique selling proposition' there is no reason for anyone to buy it. In fact, in most established industries, there is only room for two or three major companies: think of soft drinks, soap and washing powders, jeans, sports shoes, and so on. Although small companies are generally flexible, and can quickly respond to market conditions, their narrow range of customers causes problematic fluctuations in turnover and profit. Furthermore, they are vulnerable in a recession when, largely for psychological reasons, distributors, retailers and customers all prefer to buy from big, well-known suppliers.

1c Comprehension

Which of the following three paragraphs most accurately summarizes the text, and what is wrong with the others?

First summary:

In most markets there is a definite market leader, with the largest market share, which frequently helps other firms to introduce new products. In many cases, there is also a market challenger, which wants to replace the leader, and various market followers, which seek out particular niches that do not interest the leader. Other followers merely imitate the products of larger companies, but this is a dangerous strategy during recessions.

Second summary:

In most markets there is a leader that strongly influences other firms in the introduction of new products, price changes, promotions, and so on. There is frequently also a market challenger, with the second-largest market share, which can attempt to increase its market share by attacking either the leader or some market followers. Market followers often concentrate on profitable niche products that are in some way differentiated from the products of larger companies.

Third summary:

The first company in a particular market nearly always becomes the market leader, a position it will try to keep by regularly attacking distinct market challengers and followers. Most followers can either concentrate on small market segments or niches, or follow the safer strategy of imitating the leader's products.

1d Vocabulary

Find words in the text which mean the following.

- 1 a company's sales expressed as a percentage of the total market
- 2 short-term tactics designed to stimulate stronger sales of a product
- 3 the situation in which there is only one seller of a product
- 4 companies offering similar goods or services to the same set of customers
- 5 a short and easily memorized phrase used in advertising
- 6 the division of a market into submarkets according to the needs or buying habits of different groups of potential customers
- 7 a small and specific market segment
- 8 a factor which makes you superior to competitors in a certain respect
- 9 a business's total sales revenue
- 10 a period during which an economy is working below its potential

2 Competition

2a Vocabulary

Match up these words with the definitions below.

barriers to entry cartel dominant-firm oligopoly
economies of scale monopolistic competition
monopoly monopsony natural monopoly
oligopoly perfect competition

- 1 exists when products are homogeneous, and there are a great many firms too small to have any influence on the market price, and firms can easily enter and exit the industry.
- 2 A is a market in a particular product in which a single producer can fix an artificial price.
- 3 is the situation in which there is only one buyer.
- 4 A is an industry in which the efficient existence of more than one producer is impossible; examples include public utilities such as water, gas and electricity, where it would be inefficient to have several competing companies laying their own networks of pipes or cables.
- 5 exists when many producers of slightly differentiated products are able to sell them at well above their marginal cost.
- 6 An is a concentrated market dominated by a few large suppliers. This is very frequent in manufacturing because of economies of scale and the cost barriers of entering an industry.
- 7 are factors which cause the average cost of producing something to fall as output increases.
- 8 are economic or technical factors that make it difficult or impossible for firms to enter a market or compete with existing suppliers.
- 9 A is one in which a market leader can indicate its preferred price to smaller competitors.
- 10 A is a group of producers or sellers who fix prices and quantities in order to avoid competition and increase profits. This is illegal in many countries, most notably the USA.

2b Comprehension

Classify the following markets according to whether you think they are examples of the following.

a dominant-firm oligopoly monopolistic competition a monopoly
a monopsony an oligopoly perfect competition



- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1 arms and weapons systems | 4 confectionery (chocolate bars) |
| 2 cars (automobiles) | 5 mainframe computers |
| 3 wheat | 6 rail transport |

2c Reading

Rearrange the following sentences and part-sentences to make up a short text about market concentration like this:

- Begin with a paragraph containing arguments both against and in favour of monopoly.
 - Continue with a paragraph defending or justifying market concentration.
 - End with a paragraph arguing that monopolies are always short-lived, and so not a problem.
- A According to this position, the government only needs to ensure that there is no monopoly over important inputs, because there will never be a monopoly of scientific or artistic genius or business ideas.
- B According to this view, market concentration arises naturally from a few successful firms growing larger as a result of increased efficiency, innovation, and economies of scale in production, distribution, R&D, capital financing, and so on.
- C a counter-argument is that erecting barriers – for example, by process innovation, product differentiation, persuasive advertising, or pricing policy – in order to be successful and to make competitors less successful, is a normal part of rivalry and competition.
- D Although some people argue that any barrier to competition will inevitably lead to inefficiency,
- E An example here would be telecommunications.
- F and businesses facing no competition have no incentive to find ways to reduce costs.
- G Even the profits made by a natural monopoly will be temporary, because they are an incentive for entrepreneurs to discover and implement new low-cost technologies.
- H For example, although entrepreneurs introduce new products and techniques and open up new markets, their profits are soon competed away by rivals.
- I it is right that inventors should be granted a temporary monopoly as a reward for innovation or discovery.
- J monopolists are always able to make excessive profits,
- K Some people even argue that monopolies are always temporary and consequently not a problem.
- L The arguments *against* market concentration, or at least against monopoly, are obvious:
- M The only common argument in favour of monopoly concerns patents:

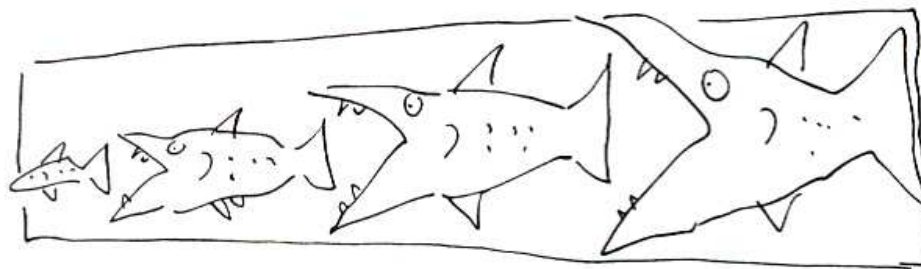
1	L			M	
2			B		
3			G		A

2d Discussion

Which of these arguments (or sets of arguments) do you find the most persuasive?

Unit 19

Takeovers, mergers and buyouts



u/c Toz

1 Mergers and acquisitions

1a Vocabulary

Match up these words with the definitions below.

<i>backward integration</i>	<i>to diversify (diversification)</i>	<i>forward integration</i>
<i>horizontal integration</i>	<i>to innovate (innovation)</i>	<i>to merge (a merger)</i>
<i>a raid</i>	<i>synergy</i>	<i>a takeover bid</i>
		<i>vertical integration</i>

- 1 designing new products and bringing them to the market
- 2 to expand into new fields
- 3 to unite, combine, amalgamate, integrate or join together
- 4 buying another company's shares on the stock exchange, hoping to persuade enough other shareholders to sell to take control of the company
- 5 a public offer to a company's shareholders to buy their shares, at a particular price during a particular period, so as to acquire a company
- 6 to merge with or take over other firms producing the same type of goods or services
- 7 joining with firms in other stages of the production or sale of a product
- 8 a merger with or the acquisition of one's suppliers
- 9 a merger with or the acquisition of one's marketing outlets
- 10 combined production that is greater than the sum of the separate parts

1b Discussion

Which of the following industries tend to be vertically integrated, either forward or backward, or both?

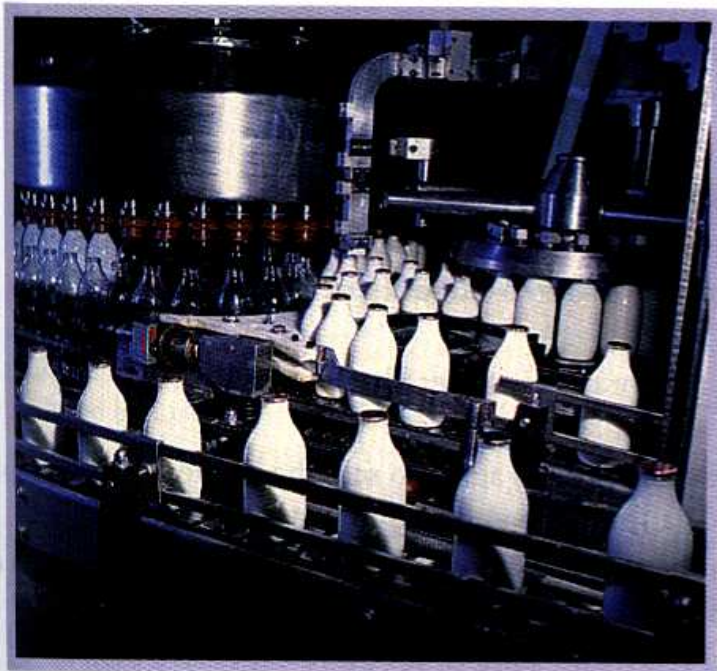
bicycle manufacturers car (automobile) makers

electricity and water companies

food producers furniture manufacturers

newspapers oil (petrol) companies

radio and television manufacturers



1c Discussion

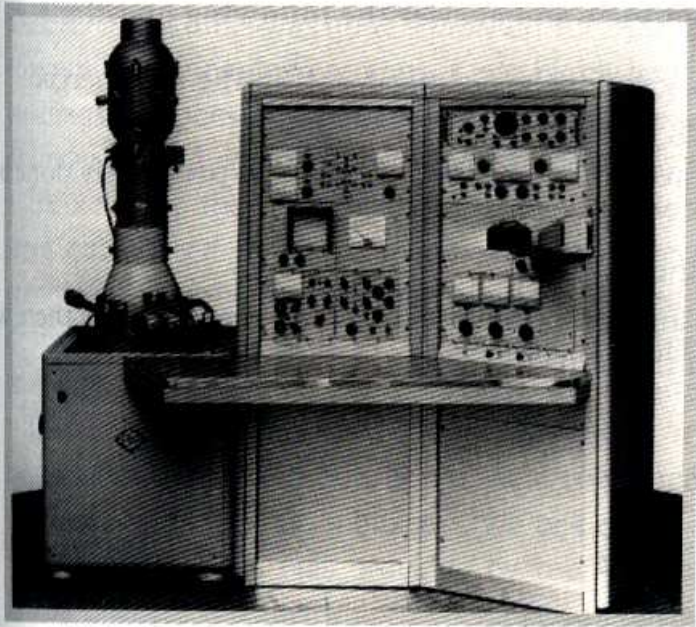
Read the 15 sentences below, and classify them under the following three headings. (Two sentences probably fall under two categories.)

- A Arguments in favour of mergers or takeovers
- B Arguments against mergers or takeovers
- C The advantages of a raid as compared to a takeover bid

- 1 After a hostile takeover, the former top executives will leave or be replaced, so all that remains is the capital equipment.
- 2 A larger company will have a stronger position on the market.
- 3 Conglomerates may become unmanageable and fail to achieve synergy.
- 4 Contrary to a common belief, a company's optimum market share is rarely very large.
- 5 Diversification dilutes a company's shared values (such as quality, service, innovation, and so on).
- 6 Entering new markets with new brands is generally slow, risky and expensive.
- 7 In many countries, if all the shareholders agree to sell, the bidder is obliged to buy 100% of the shares, and cannot stop at 50% plus one.
- 8 Individual companies might be more efficient if they didn't have to deal with a conglomerate's central management.
- 9 Innovation is expensive and risky, and sometimes more expensive than acquiring or merging with other successful innovative firms.
- 10 In this case, it is not necessary to pay more than the existing market price.
- 11 It may permit the rationalization and optimization of the use of production facilities and invested capital, and enable economies of scale.
- 12 One can attempt to buy a large quantity of shares through several brokers as soon as the market opens, before speculators notice the rising price and join in.
- 13 Success comes from having a long-term competitive advantage, i.e. producing a cheaper or better product than those of competitors, or focusing on a narrow market segment.
- 14 This is a way for a company to reduce competition.
- 15 Traditionally, the best companies have always beaten their competitors rather than buying them.

Which of the arguments *in favour of* and *against* mergers and takeovers do you find (a) the most persuasive, and (b) the least persuasive?

1d Listening



▶ The world's first scanning electron microscope, produced by Leica



▶ Max Pocock, a director of Leica in Cambridge

You will hear Max Pocock, a director of the international corporation Leica, talking about how it was formed.

Listen to the first part of the interview, in which Max Pocock talks about the history of Cambridge Instruments, and number the following stages in the order in which they happened.

The company	Number
A became insufficiently profitable.	
B developed and manufactured high-tech products.	
C expanded very quickly.	
D joined together with a German company.	
E manufactured instruments for Cambridge University.	
F was privatized.	
G was nationalized.	

1e Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview and answer the following questions.

- 1 What reasons does Max Pocock give for describing the merger of Cambridge Instruments and Wild-Leitz as 'very much a partnership of two equals'?
- 2 What does he say was the purpose of the merger?
- 3 What four reasons does he give for describing the creation of Leica as a success?

1f Listening

Listen to the third part of the interview and answer the following questions.

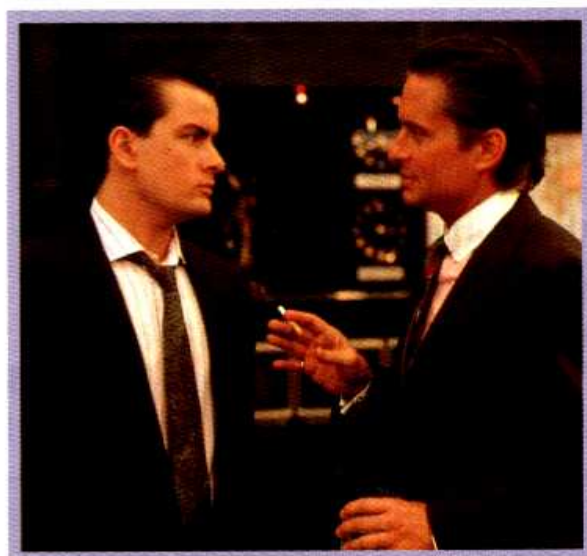
- 1 What reason does Max Pocock give for the technical staff in the two merged companies successfully working together from the beginning?
- 2 What does he say the staff of the two merged companies had previously done but now no longer needed to do?
- 3 In what areas did people lose their jobs?
- 4 What does Max Pocock say in answer to the final question that suggests there will probably be more job losses in the future?

2 Buyouts

2a Reading

Read the following text and underline the arguments in favour of leveraged buyouts.

Michael Douglas in *Wall Street* and Richard Gere in *Pretty Woman*, playing characters who buy companies in order to strip the assets



LEVERAGED BUYOUTS

One indication that the people who warn against takeovers might be right is the existence of leveraged buyouts.

- In the 1960s, a big wave of takeovers in the US created conglomerates – collections of unrelated businesses combined into a single corporate structure. It later became clear
- 5 that many of these conglomerates consisted of too many companies and not enough synergy. After the recession of the early 1980s, there were many large companies on the US stock market with good earnings but low stock prices. Their assets were worth more than the companies' market value.

- Such conglomerates were clearly not maximizing stockholder value. The individual
- 10 companies might have been more efficient if liberated from central management. Consequently, raiders were able to borrow money, buy badly-managed, inefficient and underpriced corporations, and then restructure them, split them up, and resell them at a profit.

Conventional financial theory argues that stock markets are efficient, meaning that all relevant information about companies is built into their share prices. Raiders in the 1980s discovered that this was quite simply untrue. Although the market could understand data concerning companies' earnings, it was highly inefficient in valuing assets, including land, buildings and pension funds. Asset-stripping – selling off the assets of poorly performing or under-valued companies – proved to be highly lucrative. 15

Theoretically, there was little risk of making a loss with a buyout, as the debts incurred were guaranteed by the companies' assets. The ideal targets for such buyouts were companies with huge cash reserves that enabled the buyer to pay the interest on the debt, or companies with successful subsidiaries that could be sold to repay the principal, or companies in fields that are not sensitive to a recession, such as food and tobacco. 20

Takeovers using borrowed money are called 'leveraged buyouts' or 'LBOs'. Leverage means having a large proportion of debt compared to equity capital. (Where a company is bought by its existing managers, we talk of a management buyout or MBO.) Much of the money for LBOs was provided by the American investment bank Drexel Burnham Lambert, where Michael Milken was able to convince investors that the high returns on debt issued by risky enterprises more than compensated for their riskiness, as the rate of default was lower than might be expected. He created a huge and liquid market of up to 300 billion dollars for 'junk bonds'. (Milken was later arrested and charged with 98 different felonies, including a lot of insider dealing, and Drexel Burnham Lambert went bankrupt in 1990.) 25 30

Raiders and their supporters argue that the permanent threat of takeovers is a challenge to company managers and directors to do their jobs better, and that well-run businesses that are not undervalued are at little risk. The threat of raids forces companies to put capital to productive use. Fat or lazy companies that fail to do this will be taken over by raiders who will use assets more efficiently, cut costs, and increase shareholder value. 35

2b Summarizing

Complete the following sentences, which summarize the text above.

- 1 The fact that many large conglomerates' assets were worth more than their stock market valuation demonstrated that ...
- 2 Raiders bought conglomerates in order to ...
- 3 Raiders showed that the stock market did not ...
- 4 Raiders were particularly interested in ...
- 5 Investors were prepared to lend money to finance LBOs because ...
- 6 Raiders argue that the possibility of a buyout ...

2c Writing

THE VODAFONE/MANNESMANN TAKEOVER

In November 1999, the British mobile telecoms company Vodafone-AirTouch made a hostile takeover bid for the German conglomerate Mannesmann. Both the workers and shareholders of the German company resisted the bid, but finally, three months later, a majority of Mannesmann shareholders accepted a higher offer and Vodafone took over the German company.

Read the text about the takeover, and choose one of the three connectors to fill each gap. (If necessary, look back at exercise 3b on connectors in Unit 3.)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 although / for example / however | 8 Because / Even though / For example |
| 2 Because / Furthermore / Owing to | 9 conversely / i.e. / since |
| 3 Therefore / In other words / Yet | 10 although / however / for instance |
| 4 in other words / on the contrary / owing to | 11 Due to / Nevertheless / Therefore |
| 5 for instance / on the contrary / thus | 12 Although / Because / Moreover |
| 6 Because of / Due to / Moreover | 13 because / nevertheless / yet |
| 7 although / however / for instance | 14 Consequently / Even though / In addition to |

Mannesmann's chairman, Klaus Esser, opposed the Vodafone bid. He insisted that British and American style 'predator' capitalism had no place in Germany. He pointed out, (1), that no German company had ever made a hostile bid for another German company. Germans believed that the permanent threat of a takeover or a buyout, which exists in America and Britain, is a disincentive to long-term capital investment. (2), many German commentators claimed that workers are at least as important as shareholders, and that companies are places where people work rather than assets to be bought and sold. (3) Esser's main argument against Vodafone was that its offer price of \$129 billion was too low. He claimed that the bid did not represent good value for shareholders, and that the company had a better strategy and future plans than the British mobile phone operator.

Many German business leaders argued that their corporate culture preferred consensus: (4) companies want to please a large majority of their shareholders, not just the few who are looking for a quick profit. Most British commentators, (5), claimed that the German search for consensus was really just a way of resisting change and inevitable global trends. (6), German companies regularly bought foreign ones: in the previous few years, (7), BMW had bought the British car companies Rolls Royce and Rover.

(8) many financial analysts considered the original offer price to be generous - (9) too high - Vodafone was obliged to increase it several times. Arbitrageurs succeeded in buying about 10% of Mannesmann's shares in the hope of making a quick profit. Esser was very critical of these people. He accepted, (10), that this was the nature of capital markets, and that there was nothing he could do about it. (11), 60-70% of Mannesmann shares were owned by institutional investors. (12) some of these were German banks, most of them were foreign financial institutions. When Vodafone increased its offer price sufficiently, several of these investors accepted the bid, often (13) they already possessed Vodafone shares. (14), Vodafone was able to acquire Mannesmann for \$160 bn.

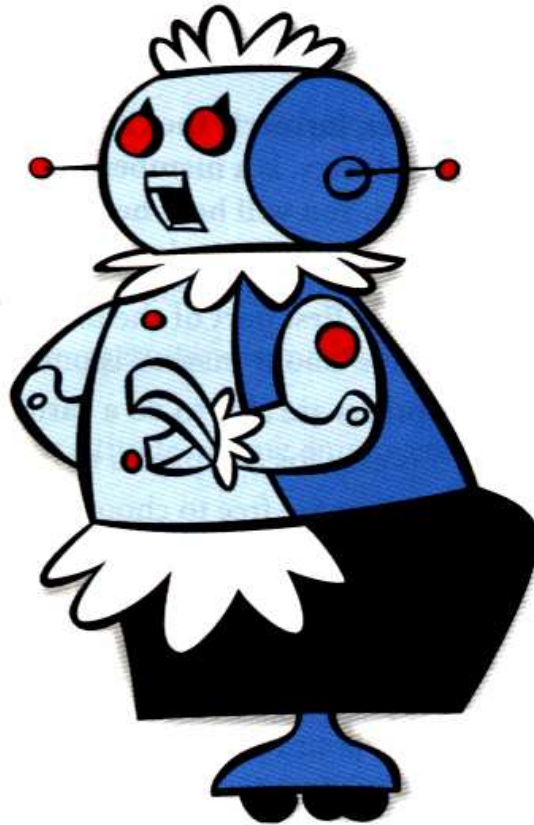
2d Discussion

You have read arguments both for and against leveraged buyouts and hostile takeovers. Which do you find the most persuasive? Can you think of any further arguments either for or against?

Unit 20

Efficiency and employment

► In the cartoon 'The Jetsons', Rosie the maid is a robot. Will technology put business graduates out of work too?



1 Labour market flexibility

1a Vocabulary and discussion

One person's 'secure, pensionable job' is somebody else's idea of a life of boredom, and might suggest to a third person an inefficient bureaucracy. One person's 'economic dynamism' is somebody else's economic insecurity. And so on. Divide the following words into two categories: those which, in general, sound positive, and those which sound negative. Then discuss, and justify, your lists.

computerization	decentralization	deregulation
flexibility	free trade	globalization
growth	job-sharing	productivity
public services	rationalization	restructuring
self-employment	stability	structural change
taxes	technology	welfare

1b Discussion

Has the rate of unemployment in your country increased or decreased in the past 10 to 20 years?

In which economic sectors have jobs disappeared?

In which economic sectors have jobs been created?

1c Listening

▶ Kate Barker: 'The United States has historically had a much more flexible market than the European Community. In downturns employment falls very fast, but in an upturn employment rises more quickly.'



Kate Barker, formerly the Chief Economic Adviser of the Confederation of British Industry, is a member of the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee. You will hear her talking about the things that will need to change if labour markets become increasingly flexible.

Listen to the first part of the interview and answer the questions.

- 1 A 'flexible labour market' is one in which
 - A workers are able to do a variety of jobs.
 - B it is easy for companies to hire non-permanent staff.
 - C workers are free to choose the hours they work.
- 2 What is the advantage of a flexible labour market for employers?
- 3 What does 'the more flexible labour market is considered to have encouraged inward investment' mean?
- 4 Kate Barker says that three things will have to be rethought or reconsidered if the British labour force is going to remain more flexible. Complete the gaps:

In particular, the structure of (1) needs to be revisited if you have people moving between employment and unemployment much more quickly. The structure of (2) needs to be revisited if you have people no longer working for a long time for the same employer, and finally in Britain we tend to have a very high level of owner-occupation – more people (3), and they borrow a great deal of money in order to pay for that. [...] It would be much more logical to have a big (4) if you want to have a very flexible labour market.

1d Comprehension

Listen to the second part of the interview. According to what Kate Barker says, which is the correct answer in each case?

- 1 In a flexible labour market, such as that in the USA,
 - A unemployment falls in a downturn or recession.
 - B unemployment rises in a downturn or recession.
 - C unemployment regularly increases.
- 2 In a flexible labour market,
 - A unemployment rises during an economic upturn.
 - B temporary employment rises during an economic upturn.
 - C permanent employment rises during an economic upturn.

- 3 In a flexible labour market, there are
 - A badly-paid workers who have frequent periods of unemployment.
 - B well-paid workers who have frequent periods of unemployment.
 - C 10% of earners who have frequent periods of unemployment.
- 4 Wages are falling
 - A because of the deregulation of the labour market.
 - B because there is now a kind of 'underclass' of workers.
 - C because of competition from Asian countries.

1e Listening

Listen to the third part of the interview and answer these questions.

- 1 What are the two measures that Kate Barker suggests governments can take to help the long-term unemployed?
- 2 What, according to Kate Barker, is a common attitude among employers towards long-term unemployed people?

2 Job security

2a Vocabulary

- 1 Which of the following words mean the same as to *employ* someone, and which mean the same as to *dismiss* someone?

appoint	engage	fire	hire	lay off
make redundant	sack	take on		

- 2 The words on the left appear in the following article. Match them up with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| 1 job insecurity | A decreasing the number of permanent employees |
| 2 tenure | B generally held beliefs (that are probably false) |
| 3 employability | C language used to persuade people to believe something |
| 4 downsizing | D temporary jobs in companies, arranged by employment agencies |
| 5 agency employment | E the central part of something (e.g. a company's workforce) |
| 6 core | F the extent to which a person has skills that employers want |
| 7 rhetoric | G the fear that you might lose your job |
| 8 received wisdom | H the period of holding a job |

2b Reading

Read the article 'The truth about work', and decide which of the following you think was the original sub-title:

- a International Labour Organization report reveals the huge increase of temporary work
- b In spite of the rhetoric about job insecurity, people stay in their jobs just as long today as they did 10 years ago
- c Employment patterns tend to be counter-cyclical

The truth about work

Robert Taylor

The gap between rhetoric and reality never seems to grow any narrower when it comes to the public discussion of employment.

5 Politicians and journalists, recruitment agencies and management consultants continue to make the flesh creep with talk of the end of the permanent job for life, the
10 arrival of flexible labour markets and the emphasis on employability in a world of regular job changes.

An impression is given of a
15 rapid, irreversible transformation of the supposed world of stable, long-tenured employment that dominated the industrialized economies for the first three
20 decades after the second world war. However, much of this received wisdom is wrong. A research paper from the International Labour Organization
25 provides evidence to demonstrate this.

The research shows that the average length of job tenure hardly changed during the 1990s.
30 In fact it rose slightly to 10.5 years. As the ILO report states: 'In contradiction to an assumed radical change in the labour markets towards less stability and
35 more numerical flexibility, the

investigation of job tenure does not, in fact, show any universal trend towards increased labour market instability among the
40 major industrialized countries. ...

While certain sub-groups of the population, such as those with less education, experienced less job security than in the past, for the
45 most part these analyses indicate there was no systematic change in the duration of jobs over time,' concludes the ILO.

What differences exist in job
50 tenure between countries seems to have less to do with technological change or globalization and more to do with the ups and downs of the business cycle. 'Research
55 shows that flows both in and out of employment tend to be counter-cyclical, so average job tenure is declining in upswings and increasing in downturns,' notes
60 the ILO. 'The decline in job tenure observed in recent years may mainly reflect the economic recovery that has taken place in some countries, rather than a
65 structural shift towards increased job instability.'

Shorter job tenures can be found among university graduates, while those with the longest time
70 in a job have a medium level of

educational qualifications. People working in larger companies are more likely to stay with their employer for a long time.
75 Downsizing tends to hit junior workers most, not the ageing core.

The report found that job retention rates stayed remarkably
80 stable, at least after the early 1980s. But the figures mask a tendency for younger and older workers to have lower retention rates compared with those of
85 prime age.

But this is not the end of the matter. The report tries to find out why so many people believe they are living through a period of exceptional job instability. The ILO acknowledges that between
90 1985 and 1998 we experienced a significant net increase in the amount of temporary work (fixed-term contracts and temporary agency employment). But the existence of a temporary work contract is not necessarily a sign of instability. Fixed-term contracts
95 are an important gateway into long-term employment.

So what explains the view that we think we are living in an uncertain world of work? It may
100 be that an involuntary loss of work now covers the articulate, skilled white-collar elites – not just blue-collar workers – and they make a bigger fuss about being made
110 redundant.

(From the *Financial Times*)

2c Comprehension

Underline or highlight the phrases or part-sentences in which the journalist:

- 1 states that lots of people are trying to frighten us
- 2 describes the common conception of the labour market in the 1950s, 60s and early 70s
- 3 concedes that poorly-qualified people are now more likely to lose their jobs
- 4 suggests that people choose to change jobs when the economy is working well
- 5 contradicts what Kate Barker says about employment and recessions
- 6 suggests that increased mobility between jobs could be a sign of an improving economy
- 7 suggests that workers in small and medium-sized companies are more mobile
- 8 suggests that workers in their thirties and forties are less likely to be dismissed
- 9 mentions the increase of non-permanent positions
- 10 concedes that qualified workers are being dismissed

2d Discussion

Although the *Financial Times* article states that permanent long-tenured employment is not ending, it also reveals that less educated workers now have less job security, that there has been a significant increase in the amount of temporary work, and that articulate and highly qualified white-collar workers, particularly older ones, are being made redundant.

Common suggestions to reduce such unemployment include:

- decreasing working hours
- lowering the age of retirement
- job-sharing
- training programmes
- increasing the number of public sector jobs (i.e. those paid for by national or local government)

What are the arguments for and against these proposals?

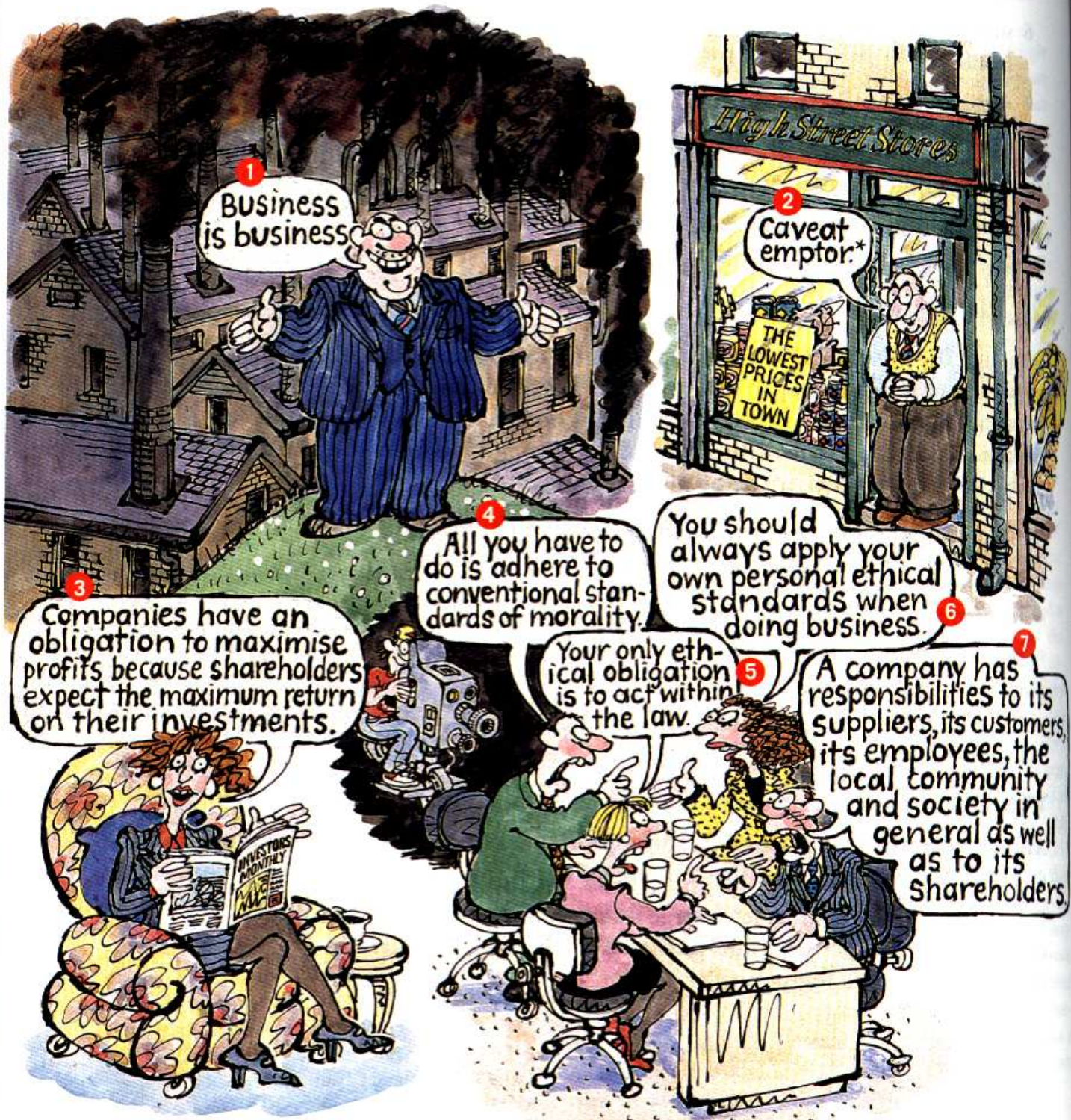
Are you optimistic or pessimistic about your own future? Do you expect the qualification you are currently studying for to get you a permanent job?

Do you see any areas in which a large number of jobs might realistically be created? Or any other solutions to the currently existing high rates of unemployment and temporary work?

Unit 21 Business ethics

1 The social responsibility of business

1a Discussion



* Latin expression meaning 'let the buyer beware'

Which of the views expressed in the illustration do you agree with?

1b Reading

Four of the views expressed opposite are referred to in the following text. Which are they?

PROFITS AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

In the 1920s, many large American corporations began, on a wide scale, to establish pension funds, employee stock ownership, life insurance schemes, unemployment compensation funds, limitations on working hours, and high wages. They built houses, churches, schools and libraries, provided medical and legal services, and gave money to charities. Since this is fairly surprising behaviour for business corporations, there must be a good explanation.

In *The Generous Corporation*, Neil J. Mitchell argues that the reason for many of these actions, most of which clearly did not bring immediate cash benefits, was that large corporations had a legitimacy problem. The existence of large corporations showed the classical economic theory of perfect competition to be inadequate. Consequently large corporations introduced 'welfare capitalism' as a way of creating favourable public opinion. Rational capitalists, starting with Henry Ford, also realized that a better paid work force would be more loyal, and would be able to buy more goods and services, and that a better educated work force would be a more efficient one.

Of course, pure free market theorists disapprove of welfare capitalism, and all actions inspired by 'social responsibility' rather than the attempt to maximize profits. Since the benefits of such initiatives are not confined to those who bear the costs, Milton Friedman has criticized them for being unbusinesslike, and for threatening the survival not only of individual corporations but also the general vitality of capitalism. In a newspaper article titled 'The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits', he argued that:

In a free enterprise, private-property system, a corporate executive is an employee of the owners of the business. He has direct responsibility to his employers. That responsibility is to conduct the business in accordance with their desires, which generally will be to make as much money as possible, while of course conforming to the basic rules of the society, both those embodied in law and those embodied in ethical custom.

Thus executives should not make expenditures on reducing pollution beyond the amount that is required by law or that is in the best interest of the firm. Nor should they deliberately hire less-qualified, long-term unemployed workers, or workers from ethnic minorities suffering from discrimination. To do so is to be guilty of spending the stockholders' (or the customers' or the employees') money. Friedman does not consider the possibility that stockholders might prefer to receive lower dividends but live in a society with less pollution or less unemployment and fewer social problems.

An alternative view to the stockholder model exemplified by Friedman's article is the *stakeholder* model, outlined, for example, in John Kenneth Galbraith's book, *The New Industrial State*. According to this approach, business managers have responsibilities to all the groups of people with a stake in or an interest in or a claim on the firm. These will include suppliers, customers, employees, and the local community, as well as the stockholders. A firm which is managed for the benefit of all its stakeholders, will not, for example, pollute the area around its factories, or close down a factory employing several hundred people in a small town with no other significant employers, and relocate production elsewhere in order to make small financial savings. Proponents of the stakeholder approach suggest that suppliers, customers, employees, and members of the local community should be strongly represented on a company's board of directors.

1c Comprehension

Write questions, relating to the text, to which these could be the answers.

- 1 According to Mitchell, in order to generate favourable public opinion.
- 2 So that the workers will probably be more loyal to the company, and will have more money to spend on products made by the firm and others.
- 3 Because he believes such behaviour to be unbusinesslike, and therefore dangerous for the company, and for capitalism in general.
- 4 According to Friedman, generally to receive as big a dividend as possible.
- 5 According to Friedman, only the country's laws and ethical customs.
- 6 Less pollution, or lower unemployment, for example.
- 7 Anyone who has a claim on or an interest in a firm, such as suppliers, customers and employees.

1d Vocabulary

Find words or expressions in the text which mean the following.

- 1 institutions or organizations that provide help for people in need
- 2 acceptability, according to law or public opinion
- 3 the situation when there are a large number of sellers and buyers, freedom to enter and leave markets, a complete flow of information, and so on
- 4 a condition of general well-being (and government spending designed to achieve this)
- 5 menacing, endangering
- 6 liveliness, health, energy, strength
- 7 an economic system in which anyone can attempt to raise capital, form a business, and offer goods or services
- 8 complying with or following (rules, etc.)
- 9 expressed, given a material form
- 10 supporters, people who argue in favour of something

2 Ethics and the law

2a Discussion

Milton Friedman, while dismissing the notion of 'social responsibility', still argues that a business must conform to the basic rules of society. In your opinion, do the following activities, several of which are not illegal, conform to the basic rules of society, or not?

- 1 Bribing corrupt foreign officials in order to win foreign orders, on the grounds that where bribery is a way of life, you have no alternative if you want to win a contract.
- 2 Industrial espionage – spying on competitors' R&D departments with concealed cameras and microphones, bribing their employees, etc. – rather than doing your own expensive research and development.



- 3 Selling supposedly durable goods with 'built-in obsolescence', i.e. which you know will not last more than a few years.
- 4 Spending money on lobbying, i.e. trying to persuade politicians to pass laws favourable to your particular industry.
- 5 Telling only half the truth in advertisements, or exaggerating a great deal, or keeping quiet about the bad aspects of a product.
- 6 Undertaking 'profit smoothing', i.e. using all the techniques of 'creative accounting' to hide big variations in profit figures from year to year, and threatening to replace the auditors if they object.
- 7 'Whistle blowing', i.e. revealing confidential information to the police or to a newspaper, e.g. that a company is breaking health and safety regulations and therefore putting people's lives in danger, or illegally selling arms to foreign dictators.

Unit 22 The role of government



1 What are governments for?

Discussion

Some people argue that governments have too much power, that they interfere with 'market forces', and that too much regulation is bad for business.

Do you believe that there is too much or too little government in your country, that there are unnecessary laws, or not enough laws? For example, do you think that any of the following tasks should *not* be undertaken or regulated by the government, but should be left to the private sector and the market system?



- education
- health care
- housing
- working conditions (working hours, child labour, minimum wages, and so on)
- social security (unemployment and sickness benefits, old age pensions)
- defence (the armed services – army, navy, airforce)
- the police, the justice system, prisons, and so on
- public transport (trains, buses, and so on)
- traffic regulations (the driving test, speed limits, seat belts, the alcohol limit, parking restrictions, the size and weight of lorries and trucks, the safety of cars, and so on)
- health, safety, and cleanliness regulations (concerning factories, shops, restaurants, food, medicines, the disposal of chemical and nuclear waste, and so on)
- the sale of alcohol, drugs, guns, and so on
- the press, broadcasting, the arts, entertainment, and the freedom of expression (concerning sex, violence, blasphemy, politics, and so on)

Now classify the tasks you consider to be governmental responsibilities in order of importance, adding any further areas that are not listed here.

2 Two views of the role of government

Here are the opinions of two well-known North American economists about the role of the government or the state.

2a Reading

The first is an extract from a talk by J. K. Galbraith. Read the text and answer this question:

- What areas does Galbraith describe as responsibilities of the state that were not in the list in 1?

The Good Life Beckons

The good society accepts the basic market system and its managers, but there are some things the market system does not do either well or badly. In the good society these are the responsibility of the state.

Some areas of state action are evident. In no country does the market system provide good low-cost housing. This is a matter of prime importance and must everywhere be a public responsibility. Few things are more visibly at odds with the good society than badly housed or homeless people.

Health care is also a public responsibility in all civilized lands. No one can be assigned to illness or death because of poverty. Here Britain can proudly point to its leadership.

The state has many other essential functions. It must also be borne in mind that many of these – parks and recreational facilities, police, libraries, the arts, others – are more needed by the underclass than by the affluent.

Those who attack the services of the state are usually those who can afford to provide similar services for themselves.

In the good society, there must also be attention to a range of activities that are beyond the time horizons of the market economy. This is true in the sciences, not excluding medical research. The market system invests for relatively short-run return. To support science is pre-eminently the responsibility of the state.

Some of the truly important industrial achievements of recent generations – the great improvements in agricultural productivity, modern air transport, advanced electronics – have depended heavily on such public investment. Necessary also – a matter we are beginning reluctantly to recognize – is investment and regulation in the longer-run interest of the environment. The good society protects and improves life in its planetary dimension.

(From *New Statesman and Society*)

2b Comprehension

- What does Galbraith say about people who criticize government services?
- Why, according to Galbraith, is the market system not sufficient to guarantee scientific research?
- According to what you have read here, how would you characterize Galbraith's politics?

2c Vocabulary

Find words or expressions in the text which mean the following.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 obvious | 6 poor or unemployed people |
| 2 inexpensive | 7 rich or wealthy people |
| 3 inconsistent with or contrary to | 8 successes |
| 4 bad health | 9 unwillingly, not eagerly |
| 5 remembered (or not forgotten) | 10 global or worldwide |

2d Reading

Here is an extract from Milton and Rose Friedman's book *Free to Choose*. Read the text and answer this question:

- What is the Friedmans' opinion of the activities of the US government?

Though the United States has not adopted central economic planning, we have gone very far in the past 50 years in expanding the role of government in the economy. That intervention has been costly in economic terms. The limitations imposed on our economic freedom threaten to bring two centuries of economic progress to an end.

- 5 Intervention has also been costly in political terms. It has greatly limited our human freedom. [...]

An essential part of economic freedom is freedom to choose how to use our income: how much to spend on ourselves and on what items; how much to save and in what form; how much to give away and to whom. Currently, more than 40% of our income is

- 10 disposed of on our behalf by government at federal, state and local levels combined. [...]

As consumers, we are not even free to choose how to spend that part of our income that is left after taxes. We are not free to buy cyclamates or laetrile, and soon, perhaps, saccharin. Our physician is not free to prescribe many drugs for us that he may regard as the most effective for our ailments, even though the drugs may be widely available

- 15 abroad. We are not free to buy an automobile without seat belts. [...]

Another essential part of economic freedom is freedom to use the resources we possess in accordance with our own values – freedom to enter any occupation, engage in any business enterprise, buy from or sell to anyone else, so long as we do so on a strictly voluntary basis and do not resort to force in order to coerce others.

- 20 Today you are not free to offer your services as a lawyer, a physician, a dentist, a plumber, a barber, a mortician, or engage in a host of other occupations, without first getting a permit or licence from a government official. You are not free to work overtime at terms mutually agreeable to you and your employer, unless the terms conform to rules and regulations laid down by a government official.

- 25 You are not free to set up a bank, go into the taxicab business, or the business of selling electricity or a telephone service, or running a railroad, busline, or airline, without first receiving permission from a government official. [...]

Freedom cannot be absolute. We do live in an interdependent society. Some restrictions on our freedom are necessary to avoid other, still worse, restrictions.

- 30 However, we have gone far beyond that point. The urgent need today is to eliminate restrictions, not add to them.

(Milton and Rose Friedman: *Free to Choose*)

2e Comprehension

- 1 In which sentence do the Friedmans criticize taxation?
- 2 What do they say about road safety legislation?
- 3 What is the only restriction they believe to be necessary regarding professional occupations, business and trade?
- 4 What do they say about the law regarding, for example, doctors and dentists?
- 5 What is their objection to the law regarding labour contracts?
- 6 According to what you have read here, how would you characterize the Friedmans' politics?

2f Vocabulary

Match up the words on the left with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 1 costly | A a large number of |
| 2 disposed of | B a medical doctor |
| 3 on our behalf | C expensive |
| 4 a physician | D done for us |
| 5 ailments | E (non-serious) illnesses |
| 6 to resort to force | F someone who arranges funerals |
| 7 to coerce | G someone who fixes water pipes |
| 8 a mortician | H spent, used or consumed |
| 9 a plumber | I to use violence |
| 10 a host of | J to compel people to do something against their will |

2g Discussion

Do you agree with Milton and Rose Friedman, concerning any of the specific examples they give of government legislation?

Do the Friedmans specifically oppose any of Galbraith's arguments in 2a?

Has reading Galbraith or the Friedmans caused you to alter your opinion about the government in your country (or in the USA)?

Do you see government as a necessary institution spending taxpayers' money in an enlightened way, or as a powerful institution limiting your freedom? Or somewhere in between?

3 Government and industry

You will hear an interview with Julian Amey, who was formerly one of a hundred export promoters working for the British government in the Department of Trade and Industry, often abbreviated to the DTI.



Julian Amey, helping small companies to export their goods and services

3a Discussion

Before you listen to the interview, answer the following question:

- What do you think is – or should be – the role of a government department of trade and industry?

3b Listening

Now listen to the first part of the interview and then answer these questions.

- 1 What are the important areas of the DTI's work *in Britain*, unrelated to the development of foreign trade, but concerning (a) industry, and (b) markets?
- 2 Which of the following does Julian Amey say?
 - A For the last three years, the government has offered no help to industry.
 - B Government help should be based on what industry asks for.
 - C Since companies require help from the government, they must do what the government says.
 - D The government should provide whatever help industry asks for.
- 3 What is the DTI's most important area of activity, and for whom?
- 4 What services can the DTI offer to British companies hoping to export goods or services (a) in Britain, and (b) in the foreign country (or market)?
- 5 Look at the following words and expressions, and then listen to the first part of the interview again, and write down the words and expressions used in the interview that mean nearly the same.

1 most important	5 to 'attack', to try to do business
2 right, correct	6 people hired to sell a company's
3 matched with, fitted to, suited to	product in a particular market
4 targeting	7 means or facilities

3c Listening

In the second part of the interview, Julian Amey gives a specific example of the government helping a company to enter a new export market. Listen to it once, and then listen a second time and fill in the gaps in the paragraph below.

Last year we had a company, actually based in Northern Ireland, which wanted to get into the Latin American market, and they had no (1) in the area. They first of all attended a (2) that we ran in Belfast where we (3) industry on the new economic and political situation in Latin America. They decided then that they wanted to visit the markets and so they were able to join a (4) which we supported by giving grants, that's to say a travel and (5) grant which makes it obviously more (6) for a company to enter the market. They went out to the market, found immediately a company that wanted their product and were able to (7) a million dollar order on that first visit and from that visit they then (8) a local representative who is busy developing their market, so that was quite a nice example.

Unit 23

Central banking, money and taxation

1 Central banking

Gabriel Mangano is an economics research student, specializing in monetary policy. You will hear him outlining the functions of a central bank, and discussing whether it should be independent from the government, and run by bankers, or under the control of the government.



1a Listening

Listen to the first part of the interview, about the functions of a central bank, and fill in the gaps.

The first one is actually to implement monetary policy. There are roughly three ways to do it. First (1a), which means limiting, upwards or downwards, the fluctuations of the interest rate. The second way to implement monetary policy is simply (1b) – coins, banknotes. The third one, which is a bit more modern, is those (1c), which are simply buying and selling government bonds to and from commercial banks.

So that was the first main task of a central bank. The second one is (2), I would say. [...]

Third main task, yes, (3), I would say – make sure that the commercial banks have enough liquidities, for instance, to avoid any bank run. [...]

The fourth main task of the central bank would be to (4), in case, actually, one of these commercial banks goes bankrupt and the investors, the people putting money in the bank, have to get back their money.



 Gabriel Mangano, a firm believer in central bank independence

1b Vocabulary

Read the six sentences below, which also summarize central banking functions, but slightly differently, and match them up with the six expressions you have written in 1a.

A controlling the amount of banknotes in circulation

B establishing maximum and minimum lending rates, thereby controlling the credit system

- C ensuring that banks have a sufficient liquidity ratio to allow customers to withdraw their deposits when they want
- D intervening on foreign exchange markets, buying or selling large amounts of the national currency, to prevent major fluctuations
- E lending money to a commercial bank in danger of going bankrupt
- F selling government bonds to commercial banks or buying them back, in order to alter the amount of credit the banks can offer (and thereby alter the money supply)

1c Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview and answer the following question.

- What is Gabriel Mangano's opinion concerning central bank independence, and why?

After listening once, look at the following statements. Listen to the extract again, and decide whether the statements are TRUE or FALSE. Correct them if they are false.

- 1 Gabriel Mangano says that governments tend to increase the money supply in the months before an election, which helps reduce unemployment.
- 2 Mangano says that the central bank should be the branch of the government that implements monetary policy.
- 3 Mangano says that the central bank should be the branch of the government that implements budgetary policy.
- 4 Mangano suggests that governments always have a budget deficit.
- 5 Mangano says that the US Federal Reserve is not concerned with price stability.
- 6 Mangano says that there should be a limit to the central bank's independence.

1d Discussion

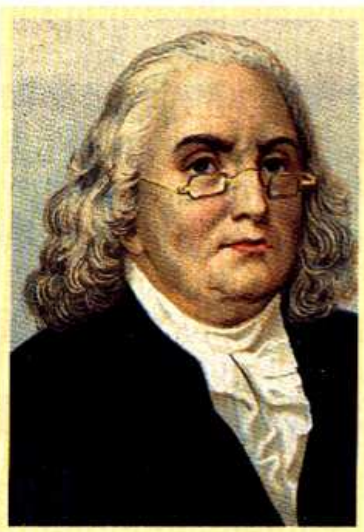
Does (or would) the government in your country exploit the 'political business cycle' by increasing the money supply or government spending, or lowering taxes, in order to increase economic activity in the months before an election, despite the long-term inflationary consequences?

Do you agree that central banks should be controlled by (unelected) bankers rather than by elected governments – which will often do everything possible to get re-elected?

Do you agree that price stability (i.e. keeping inflation low) is more important than other economic aims, such as attempting to reduce unemployment?

2 Taxation

2a Discussion



Benjamin Franklin, who wrote that 'In this world nothing can be said to be certain except death and taxes!'

The last sum of money you received had probably already been taxed, or will be liable to taxation, depending on which country you are in. Similarly, the last sum of money you spent probably included a percentage of tax.

Make a list of all the different types of taxes you can think of. If you do not know the actual names, try to describe the different taxes, e.g. 'Tax you pay if you import something from another continent', and so on.

The following pictures might help you:



You will find the usual names of the taxes you have just described in the exercise which follows.

2b Vocabulary

Which terms do the following sentences define?

- 1 The tax people pay on their wages and salaries is called
A capital transfer tax B income tax C wealth tax
- 2 A tax on wages and salaries or on company profits is a/an
A direct tax B indirect tax C value-added tax
- 3 A tax levied at a higher rate on higher incomes is called a
A progressive tax B regressive tax C wealth tax
- 4 A tax paid on property, sales transactions, imports, and so on is a/an
A direct tax B indirect tax C value-added tax
- 5 A tax collected at each stage of production, excluding the already-taxed costs from previous stages, is called a/an
A added-value tax B sales tax C value-added tax
- 6 Profits made by selling assets are generally liable to a
A capital gains tax B capital transfer tax C wealth tax
- 7 Gifts and inheritances over a certain value are often liable to a
A capital gains tax B capital transfer tax C wealth tax
- 8 The annual tax imposed on people's fortunes (in some countries) is a/an
A added-value tax B capital gains tax C wealth tax
- 9 Making false declarations to the tax authorities is called
A fiscal policy B tax avoidance C tax evasion
- 10 Reducing the amount of tax you pay to a legal minimum is called
A creative accounting B tax avoidance C tax evasion

2c Reading

Read the text and decide which paragraphs could be given the following headings.

- Advantages and disadvantages of different tax systems
- Avoiding tax on profits
- Avoiding tax on salaries
- Tax evasion
- The functions of taxation

TAXATION (AND HOW TO AVOID IT!)

- A The primary function of taxation is, of course, to raise revenue to finance government expenditure, but taxes can also have other purposes. Indirect excise duties, for example, can be designed to dissuade people from smoking, drinking alcohol, and so on. Governments can also encourage capital investment by permitting various methods of accelerated depreciation accounting that allow companies to deduct more of the cost of investments from their profits, and consequently reduce their tax bills.
- B There is always a lot of debate as to the fairness of tax systems. Business profits, for example, are generally taxed twice: companies pay tax on their profits (corporation tax in Britain, income tax in the USA), and shareholders pay income tax on dividends.

Income taxes in most countries are progressive, and are one of the ways in which governments can redistribute wealth. The problem with progressive taxes is that the marginal rate – the tax people pay on any additional income – is always high, which is generally a disincentive to both working and investing. On the other hand, most sales taxes are slightly regressive, because poorer people need to spend a larger proportion of their income on consumption than the rich.

- C The higher the tax rates, the more people are tempted to cheat, but there is a substantial 'black' or 'underground' economy nearly everywhere. In Italy, for example, self-employed people – whose income is more difficult to control than that of company employees – account for more than half of national income. Lots of people also have undeclared, part-time evening jobs (some people call this 'moonlighting') with small and medium-sized family firms, on which no one pays any tax or national insurance. In 1986, the Director of the Italian National Institute of Statistics calculated the size of the underground economy, and added 16.7% to Italy's gross national product (GNP) figure, and then claimed that Italy had overtaken Britain to become the world's fifth largest economy.
- D To reduce income tax liability, some employers give highly-paid employees lots of perks or benefits instead of taxable money, such as company cars, free health insurance, and subsidized lunches. Legal ways of avoiding tax, such as these, are known as loopholes in tax laws. Life insurance policies, pension plans and other investments by which individuals can postpone the payment of tax, are known as tax shelters. Donations to charities that can be subtracted from the income on which tax is calculated are described as tax-deductible.
- E Companies have a variety of ways of avoiding tax on profits. They can bring forward capital expenditure (on new factories, machines, and so on) so that at the end of the year all the profits have been used up; this is known as making a tax loss. Multinational companies often set up their head offices in countries such as Liechtenstein, Monaco, the Cayman Islands, and the Bahamas, where taxes are low; such countries are known as tax havens. Criminal organizations, meanwhile, tend to pass money through a series of companies in very complicated transactions in order to disguise its origin from tax inspectors – and the police; this is known as laundering money or money laundering.

2d Comprehension

According to the text, are the following statements **TRUE** or **FALSE**?

- 1 Taxes can be designed both to discourage and to encourage spending.
- 2 The same amount of money can be taxed more than once.
- 3 Progressive taxes may discourage people from working extra hours.
- 4 Sales taxes are unfair because poor people spend more than the rich.
- 5 The Italian government knows that about one seventh of national income escapes taxation.
- 6 'Loopholes' are a common form of tax evasion.
- 7 If you pay a lot of your income into a pension fund or a life insurance policy you never have to pay tax on it.
- 8 A company that makes an unusually large profit during a tax year might quickly decide to spend it, for example, on a new factory or equipment.

2e Vocabulary

Find words in the text that mean the following.

- 1 reducing the value of a fixed asset, by charging it against profits
- 2 something which discourages an action
- 3 an adjective describing a tax that is proportionally higher for people with less money
- 4 spending money to buy things, rather than saving it
- 5 working for yourself, being your own boss
- 6 a tax on incomes that pays for sickness benefit, unemployment benefit, and old-age pensions
- 7 non-financial benefits or advantages of a job
- 8 a way to delay the payment of tax to a later time
- 9 an adjective describing expenditures that can be taken away from taxable income or profits
- 10 a country offering very low tax rates to foreign businesses

2f Discussion

Read the following statements concerning taxation and government spending. Which of them are in favour, and which against? Which do you agree with?



"Even my childhood dreams were of tax cuts."

- 1 All businesses require roads to allow staff, supplies and customers to get to them.

- 2 A wealth tax taxes money that has already been taxed before, perhaps many times, and is therefore unethical.

- 3 As Adam Smith wrote, 'The subjects of every state ought to contribute toward the support of the government in proportion to their respective abilities; that is, in proportion to the revenue which they respectively enjoy under the protection of the state.'

- 4 Business investments should be fully tax-deductible in the year that they are incurred, not amortized or depreciated over an extended period of time.
- 5 Redistributive taxation is, quite simply, theft.
- 6 If the general population is unhealthy, and unable to work, firms won't find either enough staff or customers.
- 7 Income tax creates a bias against all income-generating activity, which makes everyone poorer.
- 8 It isn't people who are taxed, but productive activities.
- 9 People will stay away from retail outlets in areas of environmental damage or urban decay.
- 10 Widespread poverty always leads to crime.
- 11 The money people earn is their money, the result of hard work.
- 12 How would companies get qualified staff without the public education system?
- 13 Some people are born intelligent and others stupid. Some people are beautiful and others ugly. Why shouldn't some people be born rich?
- 14 Taxes take away people's hard-earned private property, and so should be kept as low as possible.
- 15 Society creates the conditions under which financial success is possible, and it therefore has a rightful claim to a share of that success, in the form of taxes.
- 16 Taxing savings and capital gains encourages consumption and reduces capital accumulation and therefore reduces everyone's future prosperity.

2g Writing

Working in pairs, prepare a brief talk or a written report giving arguments BOTH in defence of and against taxation and government spending. You can use your own opinions as well as those above.

Link your arguments and examples with some of the following words and phrases (see Unit 19, exercise 2c):

because furthermore on the contrary consequently however
 on the other hand even though i.e. (that is) since for example
 in other words therefore for instance nevertheless yet

Unit 24 Exchange rates

1 From fixed to floating exchange rates

1a Discussion

- 1 You probably have at least one banknote in your pocket, wallet or purse. How much is it worth? How do you know?!
- 2 If you keep a banknote (e.g. a dollar) in your pocket, you know that it will almost certainly be worth less after a few months (although a dollar will still be a dollar). If you deposit it in a bank, of course, it will be worth a little more. Why?
- 3 If you change your banknotes into another currency, you will receive a certain amount of notes or coins, but this amount can change every day, or more than once a day. Why?



The text in 1b explains how and why exchange rates change, and gives an answer to question 3 above.

1b Reading

While reading the text, decide which paragraphs could be given the following headings.

- Floating exchange rates
- Intervention and managed floating exchange rates
- The abolition of exchange controls
- The introduction of the single European currency
- The period of gold convertibility
- The power of speculators and the collapse of the EMS
- Why many business people would prefer a single currency

EXCHANGE RATES

- A The Bretton Woods agreement of 1944 established fixed exchange rates, defined in terms of gold and the US dollar. Between 1944 and 1971, many currencies were pegged against the US dollar, i.e. their parities with the US dollar were fixed. In this period, a US dollar was a promissory note issued by the United States Treasury. If anybody requested it, the Treasury had to exchange the note for $\frac{1}{35}$ th of an ounce of gold. Under this system, overvalued or undervalued currencies could only be adjusted with the agreement of the International Monetary Fund. Such adjustments are called

devaluations and revaluations. The Bretton Woods system of gold convertibility and pegging against the dollar was abandoned in 1971, because following inflation, the Federal Reserve did not have enough gold to guarantee the American currency.

- B Gold convertibility was replaced by a system of floating exchange rates. (Today, the US dollar – the unofficial world currency – is merely a piece of paper on which is written 'In God We Trust' God, not gold!) A freely (or clean) floating exchange rate is determined purely by supply and demand. Theoretically, in the absence of speculation, exchange rates should reflect purchasing power parity – the cost of a given selection of goods and services in different countries. Proponents of floating exchange rates, such as Milton Friedman, argued that currencies would automatically establish stable exchange rates which would reflect economic realities more precisely than calculations by central bank officials. Yet they underestimated the impact of speculation, and the fact that companies and investors frequently follow short-term money market trends even if these are contrary to their own long-term interests.
- C In the late 1970s and early 1980s, the American, British and other governments deregulated their financial systems, and abolished all exchange controls. Residents in these countries are now able to exchange any amount of their currency for any other convertible currency. This has led to the current situation in which 95% of the world's currency transactions are unrelated to transactions in goods but are purely speculative. Enormous amounts of money move round the world, chasing high interest rates or capital gains, as investors – including rich individuals, companies and pension funds – seek to maximize the value of their assets. In London alone, in the late 1990s, over \$300 billion worth of currency was traded on an average day – the equivalent of about 30% of the value of the goods Britain produces *each year*. Banks, of course, make a profit from the spread between a currency's buying and selling prices.
- D Few governments, however, leave exchange rates wholly at the mercy of market forces. Most of them attempt to influence the level of their currency when necessary. Managed (or dirty) floating exchange rates are more common than freely floating ones. For example, in the 1980s, most Western European governments joined the EMS (European Monetary System), which established parities between member currencies. There was also an Exchange Rate Mechanism (ERM): if the rate diverged by more than plus or minus $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent from the central parity, central banks had to intervene in exchange markets, buying or selling in order to increase or decrease the value of their currency.
- E Yet international speculators can be more powerful than governments. For example, on a single day in September 1992 the Bank of England lost five *billion* pounds in a hopeless attempt to support the pound sterling. For weeks, all the world's financial institutions and rich individuals had been selling their pounds, as everyone except the British Government believed that the pound had been seriously overvalued ever since it belatedly joined the ERM in 1990. When the British central bank ran out of reserves and could no longer buy pounds, the currency was withdrawn from the ERM and allowed to float, instantly losing about 15% of its value against the D-mark. The next year, speculators attacked five other European currencies, and the European Monetary System was suspended. It was later reintroduced in a looser form.
- F Many manufacturers are in favour of fixed exchange rates, or a single currency. Although it is possible to some extent to hedge against currency fluctuations by way of futures contracts, forward planning is difficult when the price of raw materials bought from abroad, or the price of your products in export markets, can rise or fall

by 50% in only a few months. (Since exchange controls were abolished, currencies including the US\$ and the £ sterling have in turn appreciated by up to 100% and then depreciated by more than 50% against the currencies of major trading partners.)

- G Pressure from industrialists and governments led to the introduction of the euro. Twelve countries fixed their exchange rates against the new currency, and beginning in 1999 the new currency was used as a means of payment between companies and in foreign trade, and bonds were denominated in it. The euro came into existence as a real currency in 2002, when the old notes and coins in the twelve member countries were withdrawn.



1c Comprehension

Are the following statements TRUE or FALSE?

- 1 Gold convertibility was abandoned because there was too much gold.
- 2 It is now impossible to exchange dollars for gold.
- 3 Only a pegged currency can be devalued or revalued.
- 4 A floating currency can either appreciate or be devalued.
- 5 Central banks sometimes attempt to decrease the value of their currency.
- 6 The EMS was designed to stabilize exchange rates.
- 7 To speculate is to take risks; to hedge is to try to avoid risks.
- 8 Under the system of floating exchange rates, currencies can depreciate 100% in a short time.

1d Vocabulary

1 Match up the half-sentences below.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 To 'peg' a currency against something means to | A the amount of a country's money that residents were able to change into foreign currencies. |
| 2 A clean floating exchange rate | B fix its value in relation to it. |
| 3 Exchange controls used to limit | C make a profit by making capital gains or by investing at higher interest rates. |
| 4 Speculators buy or sell currencies in order to | D is determined by supply and demand. |
| 5 'Market forces' means | E trying to insure against unfavourable price movements by way of futures contracts. |
| 6 'Hedging' means | F the determination of price by supply and demand (the quantity available and the quantity bought and sold). |

2 Which six of these verbs are defined below?

abolish *adjust* *appreciate* *convert* *diverge*
establish *fluctuate* *peg* *suspend* *revalue*

- 1 to make changes to something
- 2 to change something into something else
- 3 to end something permanently
- 4 to end something temporarily
- 5 to go up or down (in quantity, value, etc.)
- 6 to move away from what is considered normal

1e Discussion

Many people today argue that currency speculators rather than governments or central banks are able to determine exchange rates, interest rates, and levels of investment, trade and growth. Around the world, over \$1.8 *trillion* dollars are traded every day by currency speculators. Opponents of currency speculation are calling for governments around the world to introduce a tax on international currency transactions. A Tobin Tax – named after the economist James Tobin who first suggested the idea – would be an excise tax on cross-border currency transactions. A tax of 0.1 to 0.25 per cent of volume (10 to 25 cents per 100 dollars) would discourage short-term speculative currency trades, without affecting long-term productive investments. Such a tax, its defenders claim, would make financial markets less volatile, and could generate hundreds of billions of dollars a year for international development, such as basic environmental and human needs in poor countries.

Do you agree with the idea of such a tax, or with constraints on speculative currency trades, or do you think that people should have the right to do what they like with their assets?

2 Floating exchange rates versus a common currency

Professor Jean-Christian Lambelet is an economist who teaches at the universities of Lausanne and Geneva, in Switzerland. You will hear him talking about exchange rates.

2a Vocabulary

Before listening to the interview, look at this list of expressions. Underline the ones you would expect to hear in this context.

accelerated depreciation *appreciated* *capital flows* *cash flow*
common currency *floating rate note* *flotation* *freely floating*
gold standard *managed floating* *managed fund* *off-the-peg*
pegged *pure floating*



▶ Jean-Christian Lambelet:
'Floating exchange rates are the best we can hope for.'

2b Listening

Now listen to the interview. According to what Jean-Christian Lambelet says, are the following statements TRUE or FALSE?

- 1 It seems likely that a world currency would be good for business.
- 2 A world central bank is a highly unlikely prospect.
- 3 There is often very little economic coordination between different countries.
- 4 A global tax system would be necessary to counter any serious global economic problems.
- 5 A common European currency is inevitable.
- 6 Floating exchange rates were first introduced in 1953.
- 7 In 1978, speculators attacked the Swiss franc.
- 8 The system we have is not perfect, but is the best that we can expect in an imperfect world.

2c Comprehension

Now look at the half-sentences below, which have been extracted from the interview. Match up the halves, and then listen again to the interview to see if you were right.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 If you had a world currency you'd have no exchange rates | A to a common currency. |
| 2 It would mean, like under the gold standard, | B because you'd also need to have some kind of world fiscal system. |
| 3 It would not be enough to have a world central bank | C a very stable and certain economic environment. |
| 4 In Europe at one point there will have to be a jump | D and that presumably would be good for trade. |
| 5 Pure floating maybe would be | E too unstable a system. |
| 6 Pegged exchange rates | F and try to calm things down. |
| 7 Central banks do intervene | G run into severe problems with capital flows. |

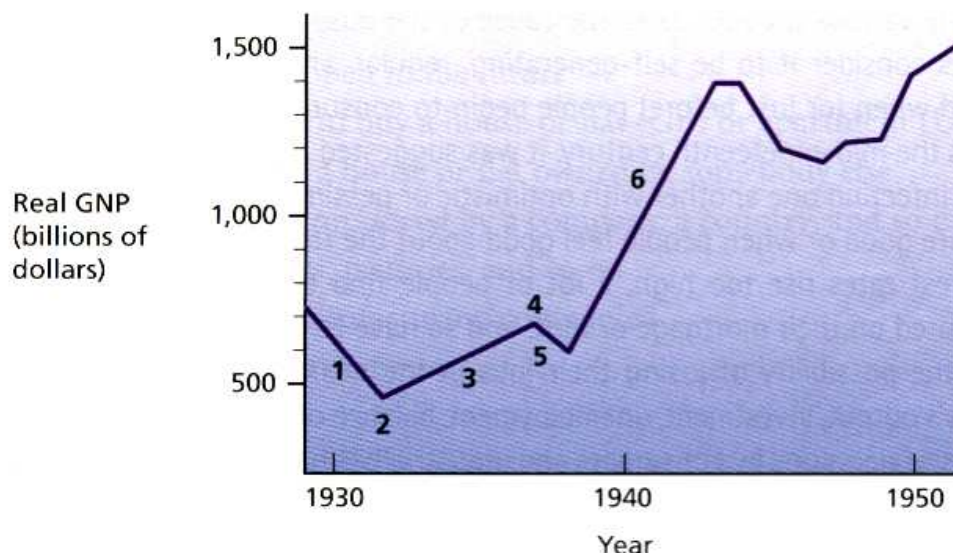
Unit 25 The business cycle

1 What causes the business cycle?

1a Vocabulary

Read the short text below and then match the following words with the numbers on the graph, which shows US real gross national product from 1929 to 1952.

- boom
- depression
- peak
- recession or contraction or downturn
- trough
- upturn or expansion or recovery



THE BUSINESS CYCLE

The business cycle or trade cycle is a permanent feature of market economies: gross domestic product (GDP) fluctuates as booms and recessions succeed each other. During a boom, an economy (or at least parts of it) expands to the point where it is working at full capacity, so that production, employment, prices, profits, investment and interest rates all tend to rise. During a recession, the demand for goods and services declines and the economy begins to work at below its potential. Investment, output, employment, profits, commodity and share prices, and interest rates generally fall. A serious, long-lasting recession is called a depression or a slump.

The highest point on the business cycle is called a peak, which is followed by a downturn or downswing or a period of contraction. The lowest point on the business cycle is called a trough, which is followed by a recovery or an upturn or upswing or a period of expansion. Economists sometimes describe contraction as 'negative growth'.

1b Reading



Read the following text and then answer this question:

- Why are there periods when a country's economy works more strongly than others?

THEORIES FOR THE BUSINESS CYCLE

There are various theories as to the cause of the business cycle. Internal (or endogenous) theories consider it to be self-generating, regular, and indefinitely repeating. A peak is reached when (or just before) people begin to consume less, for whatever reason. As far back as the mid-nineteenth century, it was suggested that the business cycle results from people infecting one another with optimistic or pessimistic expectations. When economic times are good or when people feel good about the future, they spend, and run up debts. If interest rates rise too high, a lot of people find themselves paying more than they anticipated on their mortgage or rent, and so have to consume less. If people are worried about the possibility of losing their jobs in the near future they tend to save more. A country's output, investment, unemployment, balance of payments, and so on, all depend on millions of decisions by consumers and industrialists on whether to spend, borrow or save.

Investment is closely linked to consumption, and only takes place when demand and output are growing. Consequently, as soon as demand stops growing *at the same rate*, even at a very high level, investment will drop, probably leading to a downturn. Another theory is that sooner or later during every period of economic growth – when demand is strong, and prices can easily be put up, and profits are increasing – employees will begin to demand higher wages or salaries. As a result, employers will either reduce investment, or start to lay off workers, and a downswing will begin.

External (or exogenous) theories, on the contrary, look for causes outside economic activity: scientific advances, natural disasters, elections or political shocks, demographic changes, and so on. Joseph Schumpeter believed that the business cycle is caused by major technological inventions (the steam engine, railways, automobiles, electricity, microchips, and so on), which lead to periods of 'creative destruction'. He suggested that there was a 56-year Kondratieff cycle, named after a Russian economist. A simpler theory is that, where there is no independent central bank, the business cycle is caused by governments beginning their periods of office with a couple of years of austerity programmes followed by tax cuts and monetary expansion in the two years before the next election.

1c Comprehension

Match up the following half-sentences.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 Companies may have to reduce investment or the size of the work force | A consumers borrow a lot of money. |
| 2 Companies only invest | B if labour costs increase too much. |
| 3 During a period of economic growth | C if their company's sales are increasing. |
| 4 External theories of the business cycle | D include psychological factors. |
| 5 Governments often stimulate the economy | E include technological and population changes. |
| 6 Increases in interest rates | F prior to general elections. |
| 7 Internal theories of the business cycle | G result in higher rents and mortgages. |
| 8 People can demand higher pay | H when they are afraid of becoming unemployed. |
| 9 People tend to spend less | I while consumption is increasing. |

1d Vocabulary

Find the words in the text in 1b which mean the following.

- 1 beliefs about what will happen in the future
- 2 money borrowed in order to buy a house or flat (GB) or apartment (US)
- 3 money paid for the use of a house or flat owned by somebody else
- 4 the amount of something produced by a company, a country, and so on
- 5 spending on new machines, factories, and so on
- 6 owners or managers of manufacturing companies
- 7 spending on goods and services
- 8 to dismiss employees
- 9 concerning the number of births, deaths, population movements, and so on
- 10 an absence of luxury and comfort

1e Discussion

- 1 Which of the various theories of the business cycle mentioned in the text do you find the most convincing?
- 2 What is the current economic situation in your country? Why?
- 3 Are most of the people you know currently optimistic or pessimistic about the future? Would you say that they are saving money for bad times ahead, or spending and borrowing without worrying too much about the future? Either way, can you see anything coming that might cause them to change their behaviour?

2 Economic theory and the business cycle

2a Listening

You will hear Kate Barker, an economist, talking about the causes of the business cycle. Listen to the first part of the interview, and answer the questions below.

- 1 When Kate Barker talks about the level of companies' *investments*, does she mean
 - a) their financial reserves (deposited in a bank, or invested in treasury bonds, shares in other companies, and so on), or
 - b) the money they spend on their plant (i.e. factories, and the machines and equipment inside them)?
- 2 When she talks about the level of companies' *stocks*, does she mean
 - a) their inventories of unsold goods, or
 - b) the current price of their shares at the stock exchange?
- 3 According to Kate Barker, what do companies tend to do
 - a) when demand is very strong, and
 - b) when demand weakens a little?
- 4 According to the standard theory, when will companies begin to invest again after a downturn, and why?
- 5 What was the external or exogenous shock that caused the downturns in both the early 1970s and the early 1980s?
- 6 What were the two factors which led many European business people to invest too much in the late 1980s?
- 7 What was the exogenous shock that caused the downturn in the early 1990s?

2b Listening

In the second part of the interview, Kate Barker starts by talking about classical economic theory.

- 1 Try to predict what Kate Barker has to say, by inserting these words in the extract below. Then listen to the recording and see if you were right.

<i>assumptions</i>	<i>commodity</i>	<i>equilibrium</i>	<i>exchange</i>	<i>exogenous</i>
<i>industrialists</i>	<i>information</i>	<i>perfect competition</i>	<i>resources</i>	

The standard classical theory of the economy, the theory that we all tend to begin with when we learn about economics, suggests that it's very, that economies naturally return to an (1) level, where they make full use and efficient use of all their (2) But most of the textbooks, when they're moving to teach that model, also mention the fact that there are a number of very strong (3) to make that model work. There has to be (4) , there has to be a lack of (5) shocks, shocks from the world outside in terms of (6) rates

or (7) prices to the system, there has to be perfect
(8) , so everybody knows what's going on in the market at
any one time, and the responses have to be very quick. (9)
have to adjust their prices very quickly, wage-setters have to adjust their wages
very quickly.

- 2 What is it that Kate Barker says 'leads us into downturns'?
- 3 What does she mean by a 'self-fulfilling downturn'?
- 4 What did the economist John Maynard Keynes mean by 'In the long run, we're all dead'?
- 5 What did Keynes say governments could do when there was a low level of demand and an economic slowdown?

Unit 26

Keynesianism and monetarism

1 The business cycle and government intervention

1a Discussion

In your opinion, when there is high unemployment during a recession, should the government intervene in the economy to create jobs? For example, should it use unemployed construction workers to build new housing or roads or transport systems, and unemployed teachers to reduce the size of classes in schools, and so on, rather than pay social security benefits to these people to do nothing?

If not, why not? What are the economic arguments against such governmental spending?



WHILE THE ECONOMY APPEARS SLUGGISH, PRIMARILY IN THE GOODS-PRODUCING INDUSTRIES, THE OVER-ALL SERVICE SECTOR IS BUOYANT, WITH CONTINUED GROWTH IN JOBS AND INCOMES, AS EVIDENCED BY RECENT EMPLOYMENT DATA



1b Vocabulary

1 Match up the following words and definitions.

- | | |
|-------------------|--|
| 1 supply | A a state of balance, for example when supply meets demand |
| 2 demand | B government or central bank measures concerning the rate of growth of the money supply (the amount of money in circulation) |
| 3 market forces | C government measures concerning taxation, public expenditure, and so on |
| 4 equilibrium | D supply and demand |
| 5 fiscal policy | E the willingness and ability of consumers to purchase goods and services |
| 6 monetary policy | F the willingness and ability to offer goods or services for sale |

2 Match up the words below into pairs that mean the same.

flexible error companies
costs excess output
expenditure boost increase
lower

spending raise expenses
firms variable surplus
reduce stimulate mistake
production

3 Match up the words below into pairs of opposites.

contraction boom flexible
buoyant cut deflate
demand consuming

growth stimulate rigid
supply sluggish saving
increase depression

1c Reading

John Maynard Keynes, who has a school of economic thought named after him



Milton Friedman, the most famous monetarist economist

Complete the text below using these words:

boom demand employment equilibrium interest rates
money supply output price recession saving

SHOULD THE GOVERNMENT INTERVENE IN THE BUSINESS CYCLE?

Keynesianism

The great depression of the 1930s demonstrated that, at least in the short run, the market system does not automatically lead to full employment. In *The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money* (1936), John Maynard Keynes argued that market forces could produce an equilibrium with high unemployment of indefinite duration. For example, if people are worried about the possibility of losing their jobs in the near future they will probably start (1) money and consume less, which will lead to a fall in demand, and consequently in production and employment. In such circumstances, producers will clearly not be interested in making new investments. So people's savings will remain unused, and the economy will settle into a new (2) at a lower level of activity – with fewer goods being produced, fewer people employed, and reduced rates of income and investment. Classical economic theory stated that in the long run, excess savings would cause (3) to fall and investment to increase again. Keynes disagreed, arguing that market economies are inherently unstable and without a self-correcting mechanism, except perhaps in the long run – but as he famously put it, 'in the long run, we are all dead'.

Keynes therefore recommended governmental intervention in the economy, to counter

the business cycle. During an inflationary (4) , governments could decrease their spending or increase taxation. During a recession, on the contrary, they could increase their expenditure, or decrease taxation, or increase the (5) and reduce interest rates, so as to stimulate the economy and increase output, investment, consumption and employment. Keynes also argued that even a small amount of additional government spending or an increase in private investment causes (6) to expand by an amount greater than itself, because of the multiplier effect: the new money is repeatedly respent, except for the proportion that people choose to save.

Monetarism

In the 1950s and 1960s, monetarists, most notably Milton Friedman, began to argue that Keynesian fiscal policy had negative long-run effects. Unlike Keynesians, monetarists insisted that money is neutral, meaning that in the long run, changes in the money supply will only change the (7) level and have no effect on output and employment. They argued that governments should abandon any attempt to manage the level of (8) in the economy through fiscal policy. On the contrary, they should try to make sure that there is constant and non-inflationary growth in the money supply.

Monetarists argue that recessions are not caused by long-run market failures but by short-run errors by firms and workers who do not reduce their prices and wages quickly enough when demand falls. When economic agents recognize that prices and wages have to fall, the economy will come back to normal. Since the government will not be able to recognize a coming (9) any more quickly than the companies that make up the economy, it will only be able to act at the same time as everyone else is recognizing the need to cut prices and wages. Consequently, its fiscal measures will take effect when the economy is already recovering, and so will merely make the next swing in the business cycle even greater.

Neo-Keynesianism

Whereas classical (and neo-classical) economic theory assumes prices and wages to be flexible enough to eliminate excess supply or demand, Keynesians (today often called neo-Keynesians) argue that wages are inflexible or 'sticky' because of labour union contracts, government regulation, and so on. Furthermore, businesses cannot change their prices too frequently, because they do not have perfect information, and because there are many costs involved. These are sometimes known as 'menu costs', drawing on the example of restaurateurs who cannot afford to print menus with new prices every day according to small fluctuations in demand.

Neo-Keynesians still maintain that because individuals and firms are unable to find the right prices that would lead the economy to rising output and high or full (10) , economies can get locked into disequilibriums for long periods. Thus unlike the monetarists, who insist that free markets and competition are efficient and should be allowed to operate with a minimum of governmental intervention, Keynesians believe there is still a role for either expansionary or deflationary government policies.

1d Comprehension

- 1 According to Keynes, what might provoke a high-unemployment equilibrium?
- 2 According to classical theory, what will happen if people save a lot of money?
- 3 Keynesian policy is often described as 'demand management'. What does this mean?
- 4 According to Keynes, what is the economic effect of even a small increase in government spending?
- 5 What do monetarists mean by 'the neutrality of money'?
- 6 According to classical theory, what will bring about the end of a recession?
- 7 What is the monetarist or neo-classical objection to government intervention?
- 8 According to neo-Keynesians, why do prices and wages not adapt as classical theory says they will?

2 Inflation and unemployment

Calls for rate cuts as inflation drops to below 3%

Good news for jobless school leavers

Government announces employment initiative

JOBLESS TOTAL RISES AGAIN

OECD reports falling inflation

Interest rate fears as inflation rises

UNEMPLOYMENT REACHES 3 MILLION

You will hear Kate Barker talking about Keynesianism and monetarism, inflation and unemployment.

2a Listening

Listen to the first part of the interview, and decide whether the following statements are TRUE or FALSE.

- 1 Keynesians believe that if the government borrows and spends more money, economic activity will increase.
- 2 Keynesians want to boost domestic demand, meaning spending by households rather than businesses.
- 3 If the government borrows more money, this affects interest rates and business investment.

- 4 Monetarists say that the only result of increasing the money supply is to raise prices.
- 5 Keynesians believe that a government can increase the money supply without people noticing it, so that they spend more, and businesses invest more.
- 6 The goal of Keynesianism is to eliminate recessions.
- 7 Monetarists see neither economic advantages nor disadvantages in increasing the amount of money in circulation.

2b Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview. According to what Kate Barker says, which of these alternative answers are correct?

- 1 It is possible for government policy
 - A to reduce unemployment without affecting prices.
 - B to reduce unemployment temporarily, at the cost of increased inflation.
 - C to reduce unemployment permanently, at the cost of higher prices.
- 2 When inflation increases in industrialized countries
 - A governments can choose to ignore this.
 - B all governments simultaneously have to raise interest rates.
 - C one country will raise interest rates, and others will soon be obliged to follow.
- 3 The governments in most industrialized countries
 - A are much more interested in price stability than in the problem of unemployment.
 - B believe that continuously low inflation will also help to keep unemployment low.
 - C believe that it is necessary to choose between, on the one hand, low inflation and high unemployment, or on the other, high inflation and low unemployment.
- 4 The easiest way to achieve low inflation is
 - A deliberately to leave some resources unused.
 - B to use all a country's resources efficiently.
 - C to keep interest rates high.
- 5 In the long term, countries can best increase their rate of employment
 - A by allowing inflation to increase.
 - B by increasing productive capacity or improving the quality of the work force.
 - C by taking into account the social costs of unemployment.

Unit 27 International trade



1 The growth of international trade

1a Discussion

Consider the clothes and shoes you are wearing, and those you wore last weekend. Where were they made? Try to recall the meals you've eaten in the last 24 hours. How much of the food came from abroad? If you have them, where do your car, television, stereo, camera, watch, and so on come from? Where was the last DVD or CD you bought manufactured?

Can you even imagine living in a country that did not import anything, where only locally produced food and textiles and products were available?

1b Vocabulary

Match up these words and expressions with the definitions below.

<i>autarky</i>	<i>balance of payments</i>	<i>balance of trade</i>	<i>barter or counter-trade</i>
<i>deficit</i>	<i>dumping</i>	<i>invisible imports and exports</i>	<i>protectionism</i>
<i>quotas</i>	<i>surplus</i>	<i>tariffs</i>	<i>visible trade (GB) or merchandise trade (US)</i>

- 1 trade in goods
- 2 trade in services (banking, insurance, tourism, and so on)
- 3 direct exchanges of goods, without the use of money
- 4 the difference between what a country receives and pays for its exports and imports of goods
- 5 the difference between a country's total earnings from exports and its total expenditure on imports

- 6 the (impossible) situation in which a country is completely self-sufficient and has no foreign trade
- 7 a positive balance of trade or payments
- 8 a negative balance of trade or payments
- 9 selling goods abroad at (or below) cost price
- 10 imposing trade barriers in order to restrict imports
- 11 taxes charged on imports
- 12 quantitative limits on the import of particular products or commodities

1c Reading

Read the text and answer the following questions.

- 1 Why do most economists oppose protectionism?
- 2 Why do most governments impose import tariffs and/or quotas?
- 3 Why were many developing countries for a long time opposed to GATT?
- 4 Why have many developing countries recently reduced protectionism and increased their international trade?

PROTECTIONISM AND FREE TRADE

The majority of economists believe in the comparative cost principle, which proposes that all nations will raise their living standards and real income if they specialize in the production of those goods and services in which they have the highest relative productivity. Nations may have an absolute or a comparative advantage in producing goods or services because of factors of production (notably raw materials), climate, division of labour, economies of scale, and so forth.

This theory explains why there is international trade between North and South, e.g. semiconductors going from the USA to Brazil, and coffee going in the opposite direction. But it does not explain the fact that over 75% of the exports of the advanced industrial countries go to other similar advanced nations, with similar resources, wage rates, and levels of technology, education, and capital. It is more a historical accident than a result of natural resources that the US leads in building aircraft, semiconductors, computers and software, while Germany makes luxury automobiles, machine tools and cameras.

However, the economists who recommend free trade do not face elections every four or five years. Democratic governments do, which often encourages them to impose tariffs and quotas in order to protect what they see as strategic industries – notably agriculture – without which the country would be in danger if there was a war, as well as other jobs. Abandoning all sectors in which a country does not have a comparative advantage is likely to lead to structural unemployment in the short (and sometimes medium and long) term.

Other reasons for imposing tariffs include the following:

- to make imports more expensive than home-produced substitutes, and thereby reduce a balance of payments deficit;
- as a protection against dumping (the selling of goods abroad at below cost price in order to destroy or weaken competitors or to earn foreign currency to pay for necessary imports);

- to retaliate against restrictions imposed by other countries;
- to protect 'infant industries' until they are large enough to achieve economies of scale and strong enough to compete internationally.

With tariffs, it is impossible to know the quantity that will be imported, because prices might be elastic. With quotas, governments can set a limit to imports. Yet unlike tariffs, quotas provide no revenue for the government. Other non-tariff barriers that some countries use include so-called safety norms, and the deliberate creation of customs difficulties and delays.

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), an international organization set up in 1947, had the objectives of encouraging international trade, of making tariffs the only form of protectionism, and of reducing these as much as possible. The *most favoured nation* clause of the Gatt agreement specified that countries could *not* have favoured trading partners, but had to grant equally favourable conditions to all trading partners. The final Gatt agreement – including services, copyright, and investment, as well as trade in goods – was signed in Marrakech in 1994, and the organization was superseded by the World Trade Organization.

It took nearly 50 years to arrive at the final Gatt agreement because until the 1980s, most developing countries opposed free trade. They wanted to industrialize in order to counteract what they rightly saw as an inevitable fall in commodity prices. They practised import substitution (producing and protecting goods that cost more than those made abroad), and imposed high tariff barriers to protect their infant industries.

Nowadays, however, many developing countries have huge debts with Western commercial banks on which they are unable to pay the interest, let alone repay the principal. Thus they need to rollover (or renew) the loans, to reschedule (or postpone) repayments, or to borrow further money from the International Monetary Fund, often just to pay the interest on existing loans. Under these circumstances, the IMF imposes severe conditions, usually including the obligation to export as much as possible.

Quite apart from IMF pressure, Third World governments are aware of the export successes of the East Asian 'Tiger' economies (Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan), and of the collapse of the Soviet economic model. They were afraid of being excluded from the world trading system by the development of trading blocks such as the European Union, finalized by the Maastricht Treaty, and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), both signed in the early 1990s. So they tended to liberalize their economies, lowering trade barriers and opening up to international trade.

1d Comprehension

Write questions, relating to the text, to which these could be the answers.

- 1 Factors of production, most importantly raw materials, but also labour and capital, climate, economies of scale, and so on.
- 2 Because it doesn't explain why the majority of the exports of advanced industrialized countries go to other very similar countries.
- 3 A recently developed one, that has not yet grown to the point where it benefits from economies of scale, and can be internationally competitive.
- 4 Unlike quotas, they produce revenue.
- 5 Unlike tariffs, you know the maximum quantity of goods that will be imported.



Ajit Singh:
'If we don't solve the unemployment problem, people will walk away from free trade.'

2 Free trade and unemployment

You will hear Ajit Singh, Professor of Economics at Cambridge University, talking about free trade and unemployment.

2a Listening

Listen to the first part of the interview, and then listen a second time and complete the following sentences.

- 1 Formerly, the less developed countries were against free trade because ...
- 2 Countries like South Korea and Malaysia are competitive today because they've been able to ...
- 3 Free trade is *disruptive*; in other words ...
- 4 The advantage of free trade is that ...
- 5 People in industrial countries can only put up with the disruption caused by free trade if ...

2b Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview and answer these questions.

- 1 What would African countries need to do if they wanted to develop a car industry?
- 2 What does Ajit Singh say could lead to full employment in the rich countries?
- 3 What does he say will be the consequence if mass unemployment continues?
- 4 Does he foresee an end to mass unemployment?

2c Discussion

- 1 What does your country import?
- 2 What are your country's major exports? Which countries are its major trading partners?
- 3 Which 'uneconomic' (or internationally uncompetitive) sectors, if any, do you think should be protected in your country?
- 4 Would total free trade result in the creation of jobs, or in unemployment, in your country?

2d Vocabulary

There is a logical connection among three of the four words in each of the following groups. Which is the odd one out, and why?

- 1 absolute advantage – barriers – comparative advantage – free trade
- 2 autarky – counter-trade – invisible trade – visible trade
- 3 balance – deficit – dumping – surplus
- 4 banking – insurance – merchandise – tourism
- 5 comparative advantage – protectionism – quotas – tariffs

- 6 non-tariff barriers – norms – quotas – taxes
- 7 barter – import substitution – infant industries – tariff barriers
- 8 debt – reschedule – rollover – trade
- 9 liberalize – protect – subsidize – substitute

3 Case study: The banana wars

1 Insert the following words in the spaces in the text below.

although as consequently due to for example furthermore
however in other words moreover nevertheless whereas yet

The progressive reduction of tariff barriers has caused World Trade to increase by several hundred per cent since 1945, and there is no doubt that this has created both work and prosperity. It has also improved products: (1) the planned economies of the Soviet Union and the Communist block countries created industries that produced nearly as much as Western companies, the products were much less sophisticated, reliable or marketable, (2) they were excluded from competition. Today, most economists argue that nations which try to shelter declining industries behind tariff barriers are simply resisting the inevitable, and that they could use those subsidies to create new jobs in more modern industries. (3) , tariff barriers penalize consumers: the Japanese, (4) , pay ten times more for rice than they would if they could buy rice from South East Asia.

(5) for many years, the banana industry had a special status. The European Union allowed former British and French colonies in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific islands to export to Europe as many bananas as they wished, at slightly above world prices. Banana production costs are higher in the Caribbean than on American-owned plantations in Latin America, (6) the small size of family-run farms, the difficult terrain, and the climate.

In 1999, (7) , the US-based company Chiquita Brands made a \$500,000 donation to the Democratic Party. The very next day, the US government complained to the World Trade Organization about Europe's banana trade, and put a 100% import tariff on various European goods.

Opponents of the American case pointed out that only 7% of the 2.5 billion tonnes of bananas imported into Europe every year come from the Caribbean. The EU's banana policy only cost American companies about \$200 million a year, (8) trade between the US and the EU is worth about £200 billion.

Half the population of the Caribbean relies on the banana industry to supply their basic needs such as food, shelter and education. Small states such as Dominica



depend on banana exports to the EU for around 70 per cent of all export earnings and much of their employment. No other countries in the world have the same degree of dependence on a single product. (9) , if the Caribbean banana industry was taken away without farmers being given enough time to develop other ways of using the land, the countries' economy would collapse. (10) , the results of entirely free trade in bananas could be disastrous.

It could also be pointed out that American, Japanese and European farmers are currently subsidized by billions of dollars every year. (11) , America itself erected massive tariff barriers in the 19th century. (12) , the Americans wanted to end subsidies to Caribbean banana producers, even though the consequences might have included many of the farmers turning to drug production and trafficking, or trying to immigrate illegally to the US.

The 'banana wars' ended in July 2001 when the Americans ended their special import taxes on selected European goods after the European Union agreed to import more Latin American bananas from the large US banana companies, while still also buying bananas from their former colonies.

- 2 The text above is clearly defending the system whereby Caribbean banana producers export their crop to Europe at slightly above the world market price, and opposing the US position, which demands entirely free trade. Do you agree?**
- 3 Prepare a short talk EITHER defending free trade, OR defending the right of the EU to indirectly subsidize Caribbean banana producers.**

Unit 28 | Economics and ecology

1 Ecology and the individual consumer

Discussion

Are you concerned about pollution and the environment?
To put it another way, how 'green' are you?

Answer the following questions, with *Yes (because ...)*,
No (because ...), or *It depends on ...*.



- 1 Do you believe that governments should do *more* to prevent manufacturers polluting or damaging the environment?
- 2 Are you prepared to pay a higher price for products that you know are *not* dangerous for the environment?
- 3 Have you ever stopped using a product because you learnt that it was damaging for the environment?
- 4 Do you think environmental restrictions on industry should be abolished or relaxed if this leads to the creation of jobs?
or
- 5 Do you think environmental restrictions on industry should be strengthened even if this leads to unemployment?
- 6 Do you make an effort to recycle these?
 - paper
 - aluminium (drink cans)
 - batteries
 - vegetable waste
 - glass (bottles, etc.)
 - plastic bottles
 - cooking oil
 - anything else
- 7 Do you use public transport (or a bicycle) wherever possible?
- 8 Do you believe that under certain circumstances people should be obliged to use public transport (e.g. to travel to and from work in the town centre)?
- 9 Do you make an effort to use as little water and energy (electricity, heating, etc.) as possible?
- 10 Do you believe that there should be higher taxes on sources of energy?



2 Measuring eco-efficiency

You will hear an interview with Marc Keiser, a researcher who has developed a methodology and a computer program that would allow producers to measure the environmental acceptability (or 'eco-efficiency') of all manufacturing processes and all manufactured products. For the consumer, this would result in all goods having an eco-efficiency label, expressed as a number between 0 and 100.



▶ Marc Keiser: 'Consumers will buy less-polluting goods if they have the information.'

2a Vocabulary

Which of these words are defined below?

disposal (to dispose of) *eco-efficiency* *ecology* *emissions*
energy *environmentalist* *polluters* *pollution* *waste*

- 1 anything (e.g. gases, liquids) released into the environment
- 2 something unwanted and useless, such as by-products resulting from manufacturing processes
- 3 throwing away or getting rid of something unwanted
- 4 someone concerned about pollution, maintaining an ecological balance, and so on
- 5 the extent to which a product does not use rare resources or produce polluting waste, can be recycled, and so on

2b Listening

Read the four questions below and then listen to the first part of the interview.

- 1 The interviewer mentions three different ways in which companies might be obliged to reduce pollution. What are they?
- 2 Marc Keiser says there are three pressure groups involved in environmental issues. What are they?
- 3 Can any one of these three groups bring about important changes?
- 4 Marc Keiser mentions, in relation to the United States, three different areas of concern to himself and other environmentalists. What are they?

2c Vocabulary

What are the exact words used in the first part of the interview to mean the following?

- 1 a general agreement about something
- 2 something that encourages or gives a reason to do something
- 3 a survey of people's opinions, using a representative sample
- 4 very short-term profits

2d Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview, about the eco-efficiency label, and answer the questions below.

- 1 Which of the following sentences most accurately summarizes what Marc Keiser says?
 - A Companies are unconcerned about their ecological efficiency.
 - B Companies are willing to make some environmental improvements, as long as the government does not tell them exactly how to do it.
 - C Companies are willing to make some environmental improvements proposed by the government.
 - D Companies don't want any governmental interference in their business.
- 2 Keiser's third model is designed to inform consumers. What does it concern?
 - A a specific production system
 - B the entire existence of an individual product
 - C the output of a specific production system during a certain period of time
- 3 Which of the following does Keiser say?
 - A Companies would have to follow regulations concerning acceptable technologies.
 - B Companies could choose whether they wanted to adopt the eco-label system.
 - C Companies would be free to produce whatever products they like.
 - D The government could still forbid the sales of products whose eco-efficiency was below a certain level.

2e Vocabulary

What are the exact words used in the second part of the interview which mean the following?

- 1 the possibility to choose for themselves
- 2 an overall structure, or plan, or outline
- 3 concerning the amount or number of something
- 4 from the beginning to the end of the existence of a product
- 5 a numerical measure or standard
- 6 final aim

2f Discussion

- 1 What do you think of the idea of an eco-efficiency label?
- 2 Would it be right for the government to oblige companies to provide a label for all products?
- 3 Would it be difficult to control the labels that manufacturers put on their products?
- 4 Would such a label be sufficient to reduce pollution?

3 Pollution and market solutions

3a Vocabulary

Use the words in the box once each to complete the paragraph below. Notice that the stressed syllable changes in this group of words.

<i>Verb</i>	<i>Nouns</i>	<i>Adjectives</i>
e'conomize	e'conomy eco'nomics e'conomists	eco'nomical eco'nomical uneco'nomical

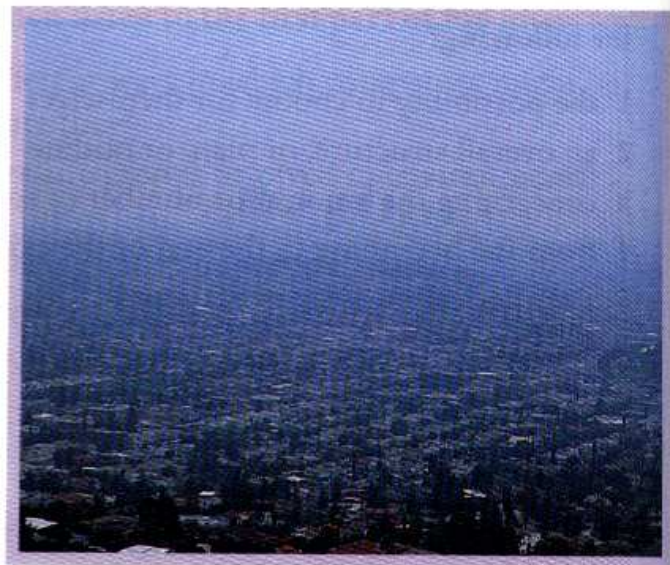
Most people today agree that we ought to be as (1) as possible in our use of natural resources, particularly energy, and to limit pollution to a minimum. Ecologists sometimes argue that manufacturers should either clean up their production processes, i.e. limit the amount of waste and emissions they produce, or be forced to close down. Manufacturers often reply that it is frequently (2) to clean up, and impossible if their competitors do not face the same constraints. Furthermore, if all polluting industries were closed down, the (3) would quite simply collapse. They suggest that many ecologists are simply ignorant or naive when it comes to (4) Some (5) suggest applying market solutions, i.e. finding a way to give financial rewards to producers who (6) in the use of energy, and who pollute less, and to penalize polluters, but without the use of taxes. Many ecologists disagree, as they see pollution as a moral issue rather than an (7) one.

3b Reading

The following article is about reducing industrial emissions of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and carbon dioxide (CO₂).

Read the article then answer this question:

- What is the aim of traded pollution permits?



For sale: a licence to pollute: Traded pollution permits have curbed sulphur dioxide emissions in the US and could soon be extended more widely, says Leyla Boulton

SIX YEARS after it was approved by the US Congress as part of the Clean Air Act, trading in permits allowing companies to pollute has cut sulphur dioxide emissions in the US faster and more cheaply than ever expected. Now the architects of pollution trading in Chicago have ambitions to extend the business to a wider range of polluting substances. And supporters are advocating an international trading system for permits to release carbon dioxide – the best-known man-made cause of global warming – into the atmosphere.

Critics may say it is immoral to give companies an explicit right to pollute. But Mr Richard Sandor, a former vice-president of the Chicago Board of Trade (CBOT), who launched sulphur dioxide trading, argues it injects pragmatism into environmental protection. 'It's time to take the environment out of the warm, fuzzy area,' he says. 'You can't just say "I want to save all the dolphins in the world." You've got to work out how to solve problems in the most cost-effective way.'

The way the sulphur dioxide 'allowance' system works is simple. The Environmental Protection Agency, a federal agency, issues permits to release the amount of pollution allowed by the Clean Air Act. Most are allocated to power companies but a small number are auctioned once a year by the CBOT to set a price for them. If plant A gets permits to emit 150,000 tonnes of sulphur dioxide but wants to emit 155,000 tonnes it must purchase an extra 5,000 allowances (each worth a tonne of sulphur dioxide)

– or pay a fine far exceeding the price of the permits. But if the plant is able to cut its emissions further than required, it has surplus allowances. It can either sell the surplus to another plant, or save it for future years.

Trading has two main advantages over traditional environmental regulation. It gives companies a financial incentive to reduce emissions for less than it would cost to buy permits. And, by leaving it to companies to decide how and when to reduce emissions, it reduces not just the cost of compliance but the bureaucracy required to enforce environmental legislation. The EPA reckons emission reduction through trading has so far cost US industry just \$2.5bn – half as much as it would have cost under the EPA's traditional regulatory system.

The scheme has certainly worked: the US's 110 most polluting power plants spewed out only 5.3m tonnes of sulphur dioxide last year, well below a government ceiling of 8.7m tonnes – prompting some environmentalists to say the targets were too lax. The ultimate aim of the programme, by progressively reducing the number of permits distributed to industry, is to cut sulphur dioxide emissions to half their 1980 level by 2010.

Its success has inspired the EPA to consider extending trading to oxides of nitrogen, toxic substances such as mercury, and possibly even the particulate dust emitted by long-distance haulage trucks. [...]

In practice, sulphur dioxide emissions need to be

supplemented by local controls to avoid concentrated pockets of pollution. But trading would be perfect for carbon dioxide emissions, which occur everywhere and have no local side-effects. The International Panel on Climate Change, the body charged by governments with investigating global warming, recently described trading as the most 'promising' of the ways it had considered for tackling climate change. [...]

Western nations are committed to agreeing national targets for reducing carbon dioxide emissions. But they are divided over how to do it: the European Union has toyed with the idea of a carbon tax. The US, however, rejects the idea of new taxation. International trading of carbon dioxide permits, distributed to countries and companies, would achieve reductions as cheaply and as flexibly as possible. [...]

Trading is already US industry's favourite option because of its flexibility. Mr Mike Shields of Detroit Edison, the US electricity producer, says sulphur dioxide trading has shown industry it can 'get reductions faster and at lower cost than expected.' And the concept is catching on elsewhere. Mr David Porter, chief executive of the UK's Association of Electricity Producers, is trying to interest his members in the idea for controlling carbon dioxide emissions from power stations. [...] Finally, trading could prove the best mechanism for drawing developing countries into the fight against global warming without asking them to sacrifice their right to economic development. [...]

(From the *Financial Times*)

3c Comprehension

- 1 Why is it considered necessary to reduce carbon dioxide emissions?
- 2 What does Richard Sandor mean by 'cost effective' in relation to environmental protection?
- 3 What are the main advantages of trading over traditional environmental regulation?
- 4 What are the criticisms of SO₂ trading made by some environmentalists?
- 5 Why must the SO₂ trading programme sometimes be supplemented by local controls?
- 6 Which alternative method of reducing CO₂ pollution do the Americans reject?

3d Vocabulary

Find words or expressions in the text that mean the following.

- 1 designers (of a plan)
- 2 recommending
- 3 realism
- 4 sold to the highest bidder (whoever will pay the most)
- 5 a financial penalty
- 6 accepting or obeying a law, etc.
- 7 excessive administrative work
- 8 plan
- 9 upper limit
- 10 not strict or severe enough
- 11 dealing with a difficult problem
- 12 vaguely considered

3e Writing

Explain how SO₂ trading works, in about 50 words, using the following nouns and verbs:

allocated permits emit purchase reduce sell surplus

3f Discussion

What do *you* think of the idea of controlling pollution by allocating a decreasing number of permits, rather than by taxation or other regulation?

If you do not like this method, which methods would you prefer, and why?

Unit 29

Information technology and electronic commerce

1 The dangers of information technology

1a Discussion

- Do you use a mobile phone? Do you use it for messaging and for internet access?
- Do you use e-mail?
- Do you use the internet as a source of information?
- Do you buy goods and services over the telephone (using call centres, help desks, etc.) or the internet?
- Do you prefer shopping this way, or do you prefer to see goods in shops, and have face-to-face contact with people in offices?
- Have you ever had any problems with e-commerce (credit card debited but goods not delivered, etc.)?
- Are there any goods or services *not* currently available electronically that you think could or should be offered by 'dotcoms'?
- Do you regularly download words and music from the internet, or do you prefer CDs, newspapers, books, etc.?
- Do you think that, in the future, *everyone* will regularly use the internet for information or e-commerce, or will there always be people who do not use it, either out of choice or for economic reasons?



1b Reading

Most people think that information technology and the internet represent progress, and are clearly a change for the better.

Some people disagree. Ian Angell is the Head of the Department of Information Systems at the London School of Economics. He sees big problems ahead.

Read this article and write a brief heading for each paragraph, summarizing its content.

Battle stations

1

We are at the threshold of a new age of communication, and many observers appear to be feeling optimistic about it. Information technology will bring knowledge and power to the dispossessed, they predict, making life easier for everyone. For them, the internet is the ultimate democracy. Are they right? I doubt it. The optimists are ignoring the likelihood that the new information technology will disenfranchise large sections of society. The certainties of the 20th century – in politics, economics, business and society – are evaporating. Everything is changing, and anyone who does not embrace the change will go under.

2

20 So just how will the changes affect you and me, the governments we elect and the countries we live in? To begin with, as electronic commerce grows, governments will find it harder to raise taxes. Every day, trillions of dollars move around the global electronic money markets as corporations carry out their transactions in low-tax jurisdictions. As products and services that have traditionally been delivered physically are transferred electronically, the tax deficit will grow. People are increasingly buying goods and services via the internet from places

where sales taxes are lowest.

3

Another example is the regulation of large organizations. Governments will find it more and more difficult to keep track of the activities of corporations and non-governmental organizations that operate simultaneously all over the world. Now that better communications are increasing the globalization of business, how can governments control companies that produce and sell in several different countries?

4

As with most new technologies, rich countries will be among the first to benefit. It won't be so rosy if you're poor. India and China are rapidly being wired up with mobile telecommunications networks. So, in theory, a small farmer from China will be able to exchange e-mail notes with his counterpart in India. But this is likely to remain a 'theoretical' possibility. How many Chinese small farmers do you know who are ready to use the internet? Like traditional networks, the internet will attract wealth along its highways. Those living off the beaten track will be cast into obscurity.

5

In this way, information technology will accelerate inequality. As this change is bound to alienate

and dispossess many people, civil unrest is inevitable. Information warfare will be commonplace between individuals, pressure groups, companies and the state. The dispossessed will hit the capitalists where they are the most vulnerable: in their computer and telecommunications infrastructure. Criminals will be able to exploit people in the same way. The internet makes it very difficult to police rogue traders because buyer and seller do not live in the same jurisdiction. It's clear what all this means: the underlying order of life is breaking up. Most of us are blind to the change. Drugs, crime and terrorism, once localized problems, are now organized globally. Unemployment among the semi-skilled will increase as more production jobs are automated.

6

Natural selection will decide which parts of societies will degenerate and which mutate into stable survivors in the new environment of the Information Age. People with computer skills are likely to end up winners. Those without are likely to emerge as losers. The power of the nation state will weaken. Communities that invest substantially in communication technologies will thrive. Those that don't, or those whose citizens are isolated from the new ways to communicate, will suffer. Change is inevitable. The Information Age will be kindest to those who adapt.

(From *New Scientist*)

1c Comprehension

Which of the following things does the author of the article believe?

- 1 A new age of communication is beginning.
- 2 Consumers attempt to avoid paying taxes.
- 3 Corporations attempt to avoid paying taxes.
- 4 Drug smuggling and terrorism are local problems.
- 5 Everyone has to adapt to the current political, economic and social changes.
- 6 Governments can control multinational corporations.
- 7 Governments will find themselves without enough tax revenue.
- 8 Indian and Chinese farmers will soon be exchanging e-mails.
- 9 Information technology will be available to everyone.
- 10 Information technology will lead to increased unemployment.
- 11 Information technology will lead to terrorism.
- 12 Information technology will leave a large number of people without any power.
- 13 Information technology will make governments stronger.
- 14 People will have to adapt, as in Darwinian evolution.
- 15 The internet is very democratic.
- 16 The internet will lead to increased crime.
- 17 The internet will make everyone's life easier.
- 18 The new age of communication will give poor people knowledge and power.

1d Vocabulary

Match up the words on the left with the definitions on the right.

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| 1 threshold | A beginning |
| 2 likelihood | B criminals who do not supply goods customers have paid for |
| 3 jurisdiction | C demonstrations against the government, riots, etc. |
| 4 keep track of | D follow and control the development of |
| 5 civil unrest | E geographical area with a particular legal system |
| 6 rogue traders | F probability |

1e Vocabulary

1 Find the words or phrases in the text that mean the same as the following expressions. Several of the words or phrases you are looking for are used metaphorically.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1 people without belongings, money or power | 8 become marginal and unimportant |
| 2 to take away people's power | 9 don't see or understand |
| 3 disappearing | 10 decline, get much worse |
| 4 accept, take account of | 11 change (from one thing to another) |
| 5 fail to survive | 12 grow and be healthy |
| 6 promising, hopeful | |
| 7 in remote places, a long way from economic centres | |

2 Which of the words or phrases selected in the previous question have the following *literal* meanings?

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 turning into vapour | 6 put your arms around someone affectionately |
| 2 people whose property has been taken away | 7 to take away people's right to vote |
| 3 to be sent to a dark place | 8 in dense undergrowth or jungle |
| 4 to change into a new biological form | |
| 5 to die (and be buried) or to drown | |

1f Discussion

Which of Angell's arguments do you agree or disagree with, and why?

1g Writing

Either summarize Angell's arguments concerning the bad aspects of information technology in one or two paragraphs, or write a short account of why you disagree with his arguments.

2 E-commerce

Listening

Chris Peters is the manager of the Cambridge Arts Picture House, part of a chain of British cinemas. The cinema advertises its programmes on the internet, and sends weekly e-mails to 4,000 members (in a town with a population of only 112,000 people).



 Chris Peters



1 Listen to Chris Peters, and then briefly summarize his explanation of how these publicity tools work, using the following words.

website e-mail programme members online

2 Listen to the interview again. What are the verbs Chris Peters uses that mean:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 <i>managing</i> the bar | 4 to <i>promote</i> forthcoming special events |
| 2 <i>planning</i> the programme of films | 5 to <i>reserve</i> a ticket <i>via the internet</i> |
| 3 <i>emphasizing</i> or <i>encouraging</i> the website and the e-mail systems | 6 <i>contacting</i> people directly at work or at home |

3 What do the expressions in *italics* mean?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 'which is <i>streets ahead</i> of any other Picture House cinema' | 3 'it <i>takes ages</i> to watch them all' |
| 2 'that's a <i>phenomenal task</i> ' | 4 'it's a <i>worthwhile tool</i> ' |

3 Role play

The Palmtop Shop is a small store in the town centre selling handheld computers, Palmtops and PDAs (personal digital assistants). It employs two full-time staff – the owner and a salesperson – and an extra salesperson on Saturdays. The owner is thinking about opening a website and setting up an e-commerce department. The Saturday salesperson, a computer science student, thinks e-commerce is the future, and that the store should be closed and turned into an online business. The full-time salesperson is opposed, preferring to work with customers rather than process electronic orders. A sales representative for a PDA manufacturer, who knows the shop and its staff well, thinks the shop should expand into other products – laptop computers, mobile phones, etc. – whether they sell them in the store or online. He/she would also like a job with the company. These four people meet to discuss the future of the business.

Your teacher will give you further details about the roles (from the Teacher's Book). In a group, you have to prepare a role: what you will say in the meeting?



Unit 30

Entrepreneurs and venture capital

All companies need staff specialized in the various functions of a business – production, marketing, finance, accounting, human resources, R&D, etc. They also need both ideas and the capital necessary to turn them into goods or services, but ideas and capital are particularly important for new companies (start-ups). This unit is about entrepreneurs and the companies that raise finance for them.

1 Market opportunities and venture capital

1a Discussion

- Have you ever had vague ideas for new products and services, and later seen them developed by an entrepreneur or an established company?
- Do you have ideas for new products and services right now?
- What personal qualities and skills do you think an entrepreneur needs? What sacrifices do you think they have to make in their lives to succeed in business?
- Would you like, one day, to run your own company, and be ultimately responsible for all aspects of it? Do you think that if you saw a market opportunity you would be able to develop a strategy, raise finance, set up and manage a company, take care of marketing, advertising and sales, and beat the competition?

1b Vocabulary

You will hear Ed Coombes, of Cambridge Capital Partners, talking about his work in raising funds for new companies. This exercise defines some important words and expressions used in the interview. Which word or expression is defined in each case?

- 1 The possibility of providing a new product or service to satisfy particular needs.
A market capitalization B market opportunity C market penetration
- 2 People with a lot of money at their disposal.
A capitalists B entrepreneurs C high net worth individuals
- 3 Adjective describing investors who do not want to take risks with their money.
A risk averse B risky C speculative
- 4 Adjective describing companies whose shares are traded on the stock exchange.
A cited B listed C short-listed
- 5 Money paid to professional people for a job of work done.
A fee B wage C bonus
- 6 Another word for stocks or shares: a company's own capital.
A bonds B equity C liabilities

- 7 The day-to-day expenses of operating a business.
A opportunity costs B running costs C variable costs
- 8 The attempt to increase or maximize sales, and get a large number of customers.
A market concentration B market penetration C market segmentation
- 9 Directors who do not work full time for a company, but advise it about strategic issues.
A executive directors B non-executive directors C vice-presidents

1c Listening

Listen to the first part of the interview, in which Ed Coombes explains what Cambridge Capital Partners do, and answer the questions.

- 1 What is the market opportunity that has opened up for investors?
- 2 Why are pension funds now investing in such companies?
- 3 How do corporate finance teams get paid?



 Ed Coombes

1d Listening

Listen to the second part of the interview, in which Ed Coombes talks about business plans, and complete the contents page of a typical business plan.

Business plan

Contents

Executive Summary

Chapter 1: What the company is going to do

Chapter 2:

Chapter 3: Strategy: how we will deploy the investment

Chapter 4:

Chapter 5:

Chapter 6:

Chapter 7:

Chapter 8:

1e Listening

Listen to the third part of the interview, and answer the questions.

- 1 Which parts of the business plan are investors most interested in?
- 2 What do investors need to know about competitors?
- 3 What do investors need to know about revenue?

- 4 What kind of managers do investors prefer to see in start-up companies?
- 5 Why are non-executive directors important to a company?
- 6 What criticisms does Ed Coombes say can often be made of entrepreneurs?

2 Equilibrium and entrepreneurship

2a Vocabulary

This exercise practises some of the vocabulary in the text on entrepreneurs that follows.

1 Match up the words and definitions.

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| 1 economic agents | A a person who starts a business |
| 2 foresight | B being quick to see, understand or act in new situations |
| 3 to maximize utility | C individual consumers, households, companies, organizations, etc. |
| 4 expectations | D knowing or being conscious of something |
| 5 entrepreneur | E not knowing about something |
| 6 alertness | F seeing what will happen in the future |
| 7 ignorance | G to do what you prefer to do, at the lowest possible cost |
| 8 awareness | H what people think or anticipate will happen in the future |

2 Match up the words and phrases below into pairs that mean (nearly) the same.

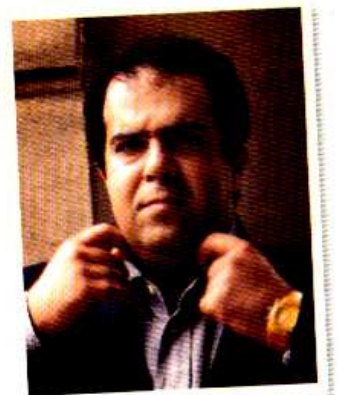
a way adjustments
ceased fully opportunity
short-lived struggle
to assume to occur
unimaginable

stopped or ended to take place
completely small changes
a means fight
to suppose or believe
inconceivable temporary
possibility

2b Reading

While reading the text, decide which paragraphs could be given the following headings.

- Economic equilibrium
- Entrepreneurs and managers
- Ignorance and alertness
- Perceiving opportunities
- The existence of disequilibrium
- The problem of change



Stelios Haji-Ioannou, entrepreneur and chairman of easyJet

- A Mainstream neoclassical economics assumes that economic agents, with perfect knowledge and perfect foresight, 'maximize utility', i.e. they choose the least expensive means to satisfy their preferences. Their fully rational decisions lead to actions that rapidly converge to an economic equilibrium. Prices and quantities 'adjust themselves' until supply meets demand. Consequently economic profits and losses must be non-existent or at least very short-lived.
- B Yet the equilibrium approach does not explain how *change* can occur. It presupposes that agents' expectations are always fulfilled and their plans are successfully carried out, so they never find themselves in a situation in which they have to change their beliefs or actions. It describes an end state, in which all equilibrating adjustments have occurred and entrepreneurial activity has ended. General equilibrium analysis assumes that all profit opportunities have *already* been identified and eliminated. Instead of understanding competition as a process in which participants in a market struggle to beat each other, it describes a state of affairs in which any such struggle is both unnecessary and inconceivable.
- C This static view of the economy does not leave any space for real human beings to act, to make choices, or to use their imagination. It does not contain a role for the entrepreneur, or for profit and loss. In other words, equilibrium economics simply assumes away the most difficult – and interesting – problems in a commercial society: imperfect information, uncertainty, change, learning, discovery and conflict. This may be because they are all a result of *disequilibrium* situations.
- D The 'Austrian School' of economics, on the contrary, regards people as sources of never-ending change, inquisitiveness, alertness, and creativity. They believe in the existence of 'radical ignorance'. Market exchanges may not take place because producers are unaware of consumers' wants or of the possibility of satisfying them. Real markets are not states of perfect knowledge. They are full of undiscovered but profitable 'facts'. The ignorance of economic agents leads to disequilibrium prices. These provide profit opportunities that attract the attention of alert entrepreneurs, stimulating them to discover previously unconsidered alternatives.
- E Entrepreneurship consists of alertness to instances where the presence of radical ignorance prevents resources from being used in the best way. The entrepreneur discovers a profitable way of satisfying needs. He or she perceives an opportunity to serve the market better than it is currently being served. Such opportunities are not automatically exploited when the expected price of a product is higher than the market prices of production: they first have to be *noticed* or discovered.
- F Thus according to this logic, profit does not come from land, labour, capital, or the technological knowledge of how to turn inputs into outputs, but from mental alertness. Entrepreneurial knowledge consists of the awareness that it is profitable to produce a product, rather than knowledge of *how* to produce it. Like management, technical knowledge is part of the labour input. The entrepreneur sees the possibility of new products, or of new technologies, production processes, forms of organization, marketing techniques and distribution methods. Many of the best-known entrepreneurs are more interested in – and better at – starting companies

than running them. They hire experienced people to do this and move on to a new idea. For example, the British-based Greek entrepreneur Stelios Haji-loannou founded the low-cost airline easyJet in 1995, the chain of internet cafes easyInternetCafé in 1999, the low-cost car-hire company easyCar in 2000, and two further companies in 2001.



2c Comprehension

According to the text, are the following statements TRUE or FALSE?

- 1 According to the general equilibrium model, it is impossible for large quantities of goods to remain unsold for any length of time.
- 2 According to the general equilibrium model, long-term unemployment cannot exist.
- 3 According to the general equilibrium model, businesses cannot lose money.
- 4 General equilibrium theory disregards the role of aggressive competition in business.
- 5 General equilibrium theory accepts the existence of long-term disequilibria.
- 6 The Austrian School assumes that all economic agents are ignorant.
- 7 Entrepreneurs can make a profit by finding new ways to serve customers.
- 8 Entrepreneurship is more a matter of knowing what can be done rather than knowing exactly how to do it.
- 9 Knowledge is more important than the physical factors of production, namely land, labour and capital.
- 10 Entrepreneurs are not very good at managing companies.

2d Discussion

Do you agree that standard economic theory is inadequate because it disregards the role of entrepreneurs, human alertness and creativity?

Appendix

Unit 11 Advertising 1d

In the survey, from the *Harvard Business Review* ('Businessmen Look Hard at Advertising', by Stephen A. Greyser and Bonnie B. Reece), the questions were answered by a specially chosen sample of subscribers, two thirds of whom were top or senior managers.

The numbers of respondents who agreed with the statements were as follows:

1 90% 2 72% 3 85% 4 51% 5 41% 6 49% 7 60% 8 57%

Many people are shocked by the figures for statements 3, 4 and 7, especially as people in the advertising business generally argue that no amount of persuasion will ever make people purchase something they do not want (or at least that no amount of advertising will produce the repeat purchases that are necessary if a product is going to survive for any length of time), and that consumers are adequately protected from misleading advertising (ads that give false information).

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Language reference

Numbers

Quite apart from all the concepts and English words contained in this book, everyone working in business in English will, sooner or later, need to say numbers, in meetings or on the telephone. This usually requires practice.

1 Zero, oh and nought

For the number **0** on its own, we say **zero**.

Before a decimal point we say either **zero** or **nought**:

0.5 zero point five or nought point five

After a decimal point we say **oh**:

0.001 nought point oh oh one

We also say **oh** in telephone numbers, years, hotel room numbers, bus numbers, etc.

0121-602 0405 Her number is oh one two one, six oh two, oh four oh five.

1805 The Battle of Trafalgar was in eighteen oh five.

Room 802 I'm on the top floor, in room eight oh two.

(For football scores we say nil: Real Madrid three, Ajax Amsterdam nil (3-0); for tennis we say love: 15-0, fifteen-love. Nobody knows why!)

2 Points and commas

In English we use a point (.) and not a comma (,) for decimals. We only use commas when writing numbers greater than 999:

15.001 fifteen point oh oh one

15,001 fifteen thousand and one

3 Decimals

In English, we usually read all the numbers (digits) after a decimal point separately, especially if there are more than two decimal places:

0.125 nought point one two five

5.44 five point four four

3.14159 three point one four one five nine

0.001 nought point oh oh one

Another way of saying 0.001 is 10^{-3} ten to the power of minus three

If you say 0.125 as zero point a hundred and twenty-five, an English speaker will instinctively hear 125, and ignore the zero point, thinking that you have made a mistake, or changed your mind while speaking. If you are doing deals on the telephone, you could quickly lose a lot of money by getting this wrong ...

But if the number after a decimal point represents a unit (of money, etc.) it is read like a normal number:

£1.50	one pound fifty
\$3.15	three dollars fifteen
2m18	two metres eighteen

4 Telephone and fax numbers

We usually say telephone and fax numbers (and car registration numbers, bank account numbers, and so on) as individual digits:

010 41 01273 315052 oh one oh, four one, oh one two seven three,
three one five, oh five two

An exception is 'doubles':

0171-225 3466 oh one seven one, double two five, three four double six

5 Hundreds, thousands, millions and billions

100	a hundred
200	two hundred (<i>not</i> two hundreds)
1,000	a thousand
100,000	a hundred thousand (<i>not</i> thousands)
1,000,000	a million (or 10^6 , ten to the power of six)
1,000,000,000	a billion (or 10^9)

One difference between British and American English is that Americans do not use an **and** between the hundreds and tens.

For the British, 123,456 is:

a hundred and twenty-three thousand, four hundred and fifty-six

For Americans it is:

a hundred twenty-three thousand, four hundred fifty-six

In the singular, the words hundred, thousand, or million are preceded by **a** or **one**:

We hired a hundred new workers.

There are over one million potential customers.

In imprecise numbers, hundreds, thousands or millions take a plural:

We're selling thousands a month.

We're earning millions of pounds.

In precise numbers, or after **several** and **a few**, hundred, thousand or million do **not** take a plural:

To be precise, we have sold eight thousand four hundred and twenty.

Several thousand people have bought the new model.

We expect to sell a few hundred a week from now on.

6 Years

The number 2,015 is:
two thousand and fifteen

The year 2015 is:
twenty fifteen

7 Square, cube and root

10^2	ten squared
10^3	ten cubed
$\sqrt{5}$	the square root of 5

8 Fractions

Apart from $\frac{1}{2}$ (a half), $\frac{1}{4}$ (a quarter) and $\frac{3}{4}$ (three-quarters, sometimes three-fourths in the US), fractions are mostly like ordinal numbers (fifth, sixth, seventh, twenty-first, thirty-second, etc.):

$\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}$, etc.	a third, a fifth, a sixth, etc.
$3\frac{1}{2}$	three and a half
$2\frac{3}{4}$	two and three-quarters

9 Calculating

$10 + 6 = 16$	ten plus six is sixteen ten and six equals sixteen
$10 - 4 = 6$	ten minus four is six ten take away four equals six
$10 \times 6 = 60$	ten times six is (or equals) sixty ten multiplied by six is/equals sixty
$10 \div 6 = 1.666$	ten divided by six is one point six recurring

Remember to pronounce the *s* – in fact /z/ – in *equals*. It is singular: the total of everything on the left side equals everything on the right side.

The verbs are to **add**, **subtract** (or **deduct**, but not deduce), **multiply** and **divide**.

Other ways of saying divide are **per**:

Fr/\$	francs per dollar
8% p.a.	eight percent per annum

and **over**:

$(x - y)/z$	x-minus-y, over z
$x - y/z$	x minus y-over-z

The *per* in percent is never stressed: we say per'CENT.

10 Numbers as adjectives

When a number is used before a noun, like an adjective, it is always singular:

a fifty-minute lesson	a twelve-week term
a twenty-minute walk	a ten thousand pound car
a ninety-five dollar price cut	a six-month waiting list
a one and a half litre bottle	a twenty degree fall in temperature

Exercise 1

Look back at Unit 13, and read the following numbers out loud:

- 1 Nokia's operating profit in 1999.
- 2 The change in net working capital in 2000.
- 3 The largest figure to appear in any of the three statements.

Exercise 2

Say the following:

- 1 In my first job, in 1976, I earned £38 a week, which was exactly £1,976 a year.
- 2 Today they're buying yen at 119.92 and selling them at 120.01.
- 3 It's either 0.431 or 4.031, I can't remember.
- 4 \$1,000,000? But that's over €1,090,000!
- 5 No, it's 12,231 not 12.231!
- 6 You can fax them on 066-22 27 47.
- 7 For further information, call 0171-359 0131.
- 8 He's 2m11 tall, like a basketball player.
- 9 It only cost €13.95.
- 10 It's somewhere between $2\frac{2}{3}$ and $2\frac{3}{4}$.
- 11 27×365 is 9,855, plus 7 for leap years, plus 2×31 , and 2×30 , plus 16 days – I'm 10,000 days old today!
- 12 The equation is $x^2 - y^3 = z$.

Exercise 3

Listen to the utterances on the recording, and write down the numbers and formulae that you hear (not the complete utterances). Listen again, and check what you have written.

Word stress

Knowing which syllable of a word has the strongest stress is important. Bad stress by non-native speakers is a bigger problem than bad pronunciation, and makes understanding difficult.

The basic rules for placing stress in English are as follows:

- **one syllable** of nouns (*business*), verbs (*purchase*), adjectives (*expensive*) and adverbs (*quickly*) is **stressed**
- prepositions (*in, at, to*), pronouns (*he, me*), and articles (*a, the*) are **unstressed**

With one-syllable nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, there is obviously no problem which syllable to stress! With words of two or more syllables, there is a problem ...

- 1 The usual rule for **two-syllable** words is that we stress the first:

'market 'commerce 'wholesale

- 2 In words of **three syllables**, we also usually stress the first:

'usually 'capital 'syllable 'difficult

- 3 In words of **four or more syllables**, we usually stress the third syllable from the end:

e'conomy eco'nomical manu'facturer

Obviously, this 'rule' won't help you when you're in the middle of an utterance, but it will be useful for words you've only read and never heard pronounced.

- 4 **But** it must be remembered that, especially in British English, some words are 'reduced' to two syllables (e.g. 'business, 'interest) and other longer words to three syllables (and consequently stressed on the first). The letters marked / / are not pronounced:

int/e/esting secret/a/ry mis/e/rable diction/a/ry comf/or/table

- 5 However, there are lots of exceptions to these rules. For example (Latin) **prefixes** are usually not stressed (an exception being the *pre-* in 'prefix!):

co-	col'lect	un-	un'kind
con-	con'nect	in-	in'sist
com-	com'ply	ex-	ex'pect
pro-	pro'vide	mis-	mis'take
pre-	pre'pare		etc.

- 6 There is a large group of words of two syllables which exist both as a verb and as a noun or adjective, which are stressed on the **first** syllable of the **noun** or **adjective**, and the **second** syllable of the **verb**. For example:

We expect our main supplier to in'crease its price again. In fact, it'll be the third 'increase in two years.

He's looking for 'finance. He wants someone to fi'nance it.

Other common two-syllable words that follow the same stress pattern include:

conduct	discount	permit	survey
conflict	escort	present	suspect
construct	export	produce	transfer
contest	extract	progress	transport
contrast	import	protest	
convert	insult	refund	
decrease	perfect	reject	

Because of this rule, and the large number of verbs that begin with a prefix, more two-syllable verbs are stressed on the second syllable than on the first (despite 'rule' 1 above).

Where these words are also adjectives (a 'perfect product, a 'suspect package), they are stressed like the noun. Where the adjective resembles the past participle of the verb (per'fected, con'tested, ex'tracted, im'ported, etc.) it is stressed on the second syllable, like the verb.

7 Suffixes are usually unstressed, except for:

-ation	calcu'lation	ope'ration	transpor'tation	
-ition	tech'nician	recog'nition	po'sitioning	
-otion	pro'motion	pro'motional	loco'motion	
-ution	so'lution	distri'bution	revo'lutionary	
-ee	employ'ee	trai'nee	guaran'tee	interview'ee
-eer	ca'reer	engi'neer		
-ique	u'nique			
-esque	gro'tesque			
-esce	conva'lesce			
-oon	car'toon			

Suffixes do not normally change the 'three-syllable rule' so 'advertising and 'organizer are stressed on the first syllable, despite being four-syllable words.

8 There are various regular patterns in English of syllables (often at the end of a word), that come just *after* a stressed syllable:

a Words ending in -ic, -ical and -ically are usually stressed on the previous syllable:

stra'tegic dy'namic eco'nomiC ana'lytical syste'matically

b Words ending in -ial and -ual are usually stressed on the previous syllable:

'actual com'mercial es'sential bene'ficial indiv'idual

c Words ending in -ible, -ity and -ify are usually stressed on the previous syllable:

'flexible im'possible com'plexity responsi'bility 'classify
di'versify

d Words ending in -ious, -eous and -uous are usually stressed on the previous syllable:

'obvious in'dustrious spon'taneous simul'taneous su'perfluous
am'biguous

e Words ending in -or are often stressed on the previous syllable:

in'ventor cre'ator re'actor

9 With initials, we stress the final one:

AG'M BB'C CE'O CN'N E'U FB'I GD'P IB'M IM'F MB'A
OEC'D Ph'D R&'D TQ'M U'N US'A US'P VA'T VI'P V'P

Exercise 4

What do the initials above stand for? Say and then write down the names, marking the stressed syllables.

10 Notice that, according to the rules above, the stress can change in groups of words:

'commerce com'mercial commerciali'zation

e'conomy

eco'nomie

econo'metric

'photograph

pho'tographer

photo'graphic

'product

pro'duction

produc'tivity

Exercise 5

Read through the following paragraph, and mark the stressed syllables, either by underlining them, or – as is 'usually done in 'dictionaries – by 'adding a ' before the 'stressed 'syllable. Then listen to the speaker – Denis MacShane, in Unit 1 – to check your answer.

I think manufacturing will change, convert itself. There are many new products that have to be invented to serve new needs, and they *can* be made in the advanced countries because in fact the technology of production means you need very little labour input. I'm holding in my hand a simple pen that British Airways gives away to its passengers. It is made in Switzerland, a pen, a low-tech product, made in Switzerland, with the highest labour costs in the entire world, and British Airways, a British company, having to pay in low value pounds, is buying from Switzerland a manufactured product. Now what's going on here? It seems to me that the Swiss – and they also manage to do it with their watches, the famous Swatch – have stumbled on a new secret, which is how to make low-tech products, sell them profitably, but actually make them in a country where in theory there should be no more manufacturing, and if you look at any of the successful economies of the 1990s, they all have a strong manufacturing component.

Word groups

There are many 'word groups' in English, such as verbs that also exist, with an added suffix, as a noun, adjective(s), and adverb, such as *direct* (verb), *direction*, *director*, *direct* (adjective), *indirect*, *directly*. There are some more examples in the box below.

Verbs	Nouns	Adjectives	Negative adjectives
achieve	achievement	achievable	under-achieving
analyse (GB)	analysis	analytic	
analyze (US)		analytical	
compete	competition	competitive	uncompetitive
	competitor		
	competitiveness		
control	control	controlled	uncontrolled
	controller	controlling	
coordinate	coordination	coordinated	uncoordinated
	coordinator		
economize	economy	economic	uneconomic
	economics	economical	uneconomical
	economist		
manage	management	manageable	unmanageable
	manager	managerial	
organize	organization	organized	disorganized
	organizer		
	responsibility	responsible	irresponsible
	strategy	strategic	
	strategist		

You will notice that common **suffixes** in English include:

For **adjectives**: **-able**, **-ible**, **-ive**, as well as the verb forms **-ed** and **-ing**

For **nouns**: **-ation**, **-ment**

For occupations: **-or**, **-er**, **-ist**

Common suffixes for **abstract nouns** are **-hood**, **-ship** and **-dom** (*likelihood*, *proprietorship*, *freedom*).

Most **adverbs** end in **-ly** (*competitively*, *directly*, *economically*, *productively*) but several adverbs of direction end in **-wards** (*upwards*, *backwards*, etc.).

Negative prefixes include **un-**, **in-**, and **dis-** (*uneconomic*, *indirect*, *dishonest*).

In- becomes **il-** before **l** (*illegal*), **im-** before **m** or **p** (*immature*, *impossible*) and **ir-** before **r** (*irrational*).

Exercise 6

Complete the gaps in the following box:

Verbs	Nouns	Adjectives	Negative adjectives
administer		administrative	
.....	administrator		
	classification	classified	unclassified
		classifiable	
develop		developed	
	developer	developing	
		developmental	
innovate			
	innovator		
plan		planned	unplanned
	planner		

Describing trends or movements in graphs

To go up (a little)



Nouns	Verbs
an increase	to increase
a rise	to rise
a growth	to grow
an improvement	to improve
an upturn	
	to go up
an upward trend	

To go down (a little)



Nouns	Verbs
a decrease	to decrease
a fall	to fall (off)
a drop	to drop
a decline	to decline
a downturn	
	to go down
	to slip
a downward trend	

To go up a lot



Nouns	Verbs
a surge	to surge
an upsurge	
	to take off
	to shoot up

To go down a lot



Nouns	Verbs
a plunge	to plummet
a slump	to plunge
a crash	to slump
	to crash

Nouns

a jump
a leap

Verbs

to soar
to rocket
to jump
to leap

Nouns

a tumble

Verbs

to sink
to tumble

No change



to remain stable
to level off
to stay at the same level
to remain constant
to stagnate
to stabilize

Change of direction



to peak
to reach a peak
to top out



to reach a low point
to bottom out
to recover
to rebound
to revive

To describe the degree of change

Adjectives

a dramatic rise or fall
considerable
sharp
significant
substantial
moderate
slight

Adverbs

to rise or fall dramatically
considerably
sharply
significantly
substantially
moderately
slightly

To describe the speed of change

Adjectives

an abrupt rise or fall
a sudden
rapid
quick
steady
gradual
slow

Adverbs

to rise or fall abruptly
suddenly
rapidly
quickly
steadily
gradually
slowly

Notice that:

The verbs *rise*, *grow*, *increase*, and so on are not followed by the preposition *up*.
The verbs *fall*, *drop*, *decrease*, and so on are not followed by the preposition *down*.

Prepositions

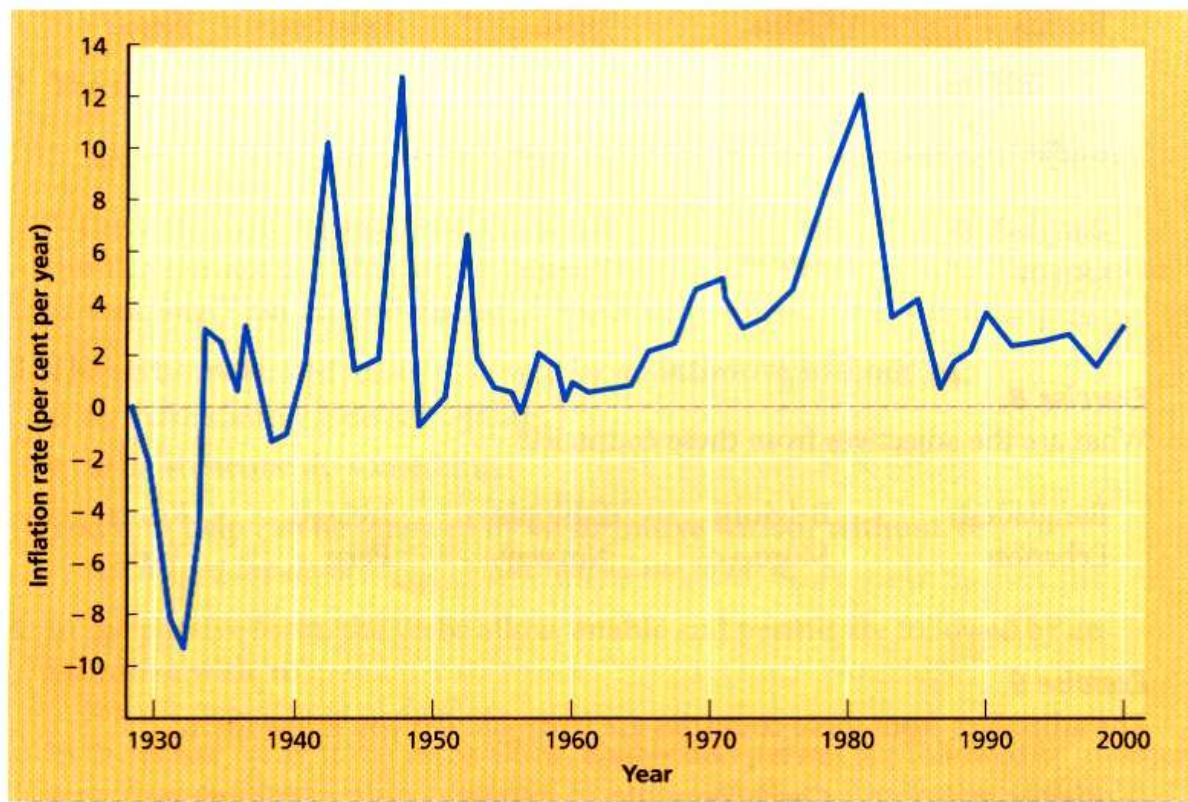
to rise **from** £1m **to** £2m
to increase **by** 100%
a decrease **of** 50%

to fall **from** \$2m **to** \$1m
to fall **by** 50%

Exercise 7

Look at the graph below, which shows the US inflation rate from 1929–2000 (as measured by the consumer price index). Write eight sentences describing it, using verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs from the list above.

e.g. *There was a dramatic rise in inflation in the second half of the 1940s, after World War Two.*



Adjectives for countries and nationalities

Various nationalities are mentioned in Unit 7. The most common suffixes (endings) for nationalities (and the adjectives from countries) in English are:

-ian -an -ean -ish -ese -i

The English names of many countries end in **-ia** (Albania, Algeria, Australia, Austria, etc.). The adjectives from these countries end in **-ian**. So do the adjectives from:

Argentina	Belgium	Brazil	Canada	Egypt
Ghana	Hungary	Iran	Italy	Jordan
Mozambique	Norway	Palestine	Peru	Ukraine

The adjectives from the following countries end in **-an** or **-ean**:

Angola	Chile	Germany	Kenya	Korea
Libya	Mexico	Morocco	Paraguay	Singapore
South Africa	Sri Lanka	Uganda	Uruguay	USA
Venezuela	Zaire	Zimbabwe		

The adjectives from the following countries end in **-ish**:

Britain	Denmark	England	Finland	Ireland
Poland	Scotland	Spain	Sweden	Turkey

The adjectives from the following countries end in **-ese**:

Burma	China	Japan	Lebanon	Nepal
Portugal	Senegal	Sudan	Vietnam	

The adjectives from the following countries end in **-i**:

Bangladesh	Iraq	Israel	Kuwait
Oman	Pakistan	Yemen	

Exercise 8

What are the adjectives from these countries?

Bangladesh	Belgium	Ethiopia	Ireland	Korea
Lebanon	Morocco	Norway	Peru	Turkey

Exercise 9

The adjectives from these countries are irregular. Do you know them?

Afghanistan	Czech Republic	Greece	Philippines
Netherlands	Switzerland	Thailand	Wales

Verb constructions

In English, when two verbs come together (when a second verb is dependent on a preceding verb), the second verb can be:

- an infinitive (with or without the preposition 'to')
- a gerund ('-ing')
- part of a clause beginning with 'that ...', 'if ...', and so on

Some verbs can take only one of these forms; others can take two or three forms. For example:

You must go.

He wants to go.

Try to go tomorrow.

Try going tomorrow.

We've decided on going next week.

We've decided to go next week.

We've decided that we'll go next week.

There is no logical reason for many of these verb constructions, so there is no easy way of learning them. But there are some groups of similar verbs that you may be able to memorize.

1 The following verbs are followed by an **infinitive without 'to'**:

can	could	may	might	must
should	will	would	had better	would rather

2 The following verbs already contain *to*, and are followed by an **infinitive**:

have to	ought to	*used to
---------	----------	----------

* The verb *used to*, describing a habitual past action, which is followed by an infinitive, is not the same as the adjective *used to* in the expression 'I am used to ...' meaning 'I am accustomed to ...', which is followed by a gerund.

3 The verbs **make** and **let** are followed by an **infinitive without 'to'**:

- to make someone do something
- to let someone do something

The verb **help** can be followed by an **infinitive with or without 'to'**:

She helped me do it. *She helped me to do it.*

4 In the **passive** form, the verbs **allow**, **enable** and **permit** are followed by an **infinitive with 'to'**:

You are not allowed to do that.

In the **active** form, if the verbs **allow**, **enable** and **permit** are followed by another verb, they require an **object** (a noun or pronoun) plus an **infinitive with 'to'**.

- To allow/enable/permit someone to do something:
This will allow us to expand into South East Asia.
This will enable the company to raise more capital.
This will permit them to be more competitive in their retail operations.

5 You **forget**, **remember**, and **regret doing** something in the past.

You **forget**, **remember**, and **regret to do** something that has to be done.

I remember doing that in the first year at university.

Did you remember to phone him this morning?

No, I forgot to make a note of his number.

I regret to inform you that you're fired!

6 Some English verbs are always followed by a preposition if used in a long clause.

For example:

I apologize. *I apologize for being late.*

I insist. *I insist on being consulted.*

If you do not know the preposition, it is impossible to use the verb correctly. On the other hand, if you *do* know a verb + preposition construction, you can be sure that if it is followed by a second verb, this will be a gerund.

These verbs are followed by a **preposition and a gerund**:

abstain from + <i>-ing</i>	*accuse of	apologize for
approve of	assist in	‡believe in
*blame for	‡complain about	concentrate on
‡confess to	consist of / in	contribute to
cope with	‡decide on / against	*deter from
*discourage from	*dissuade from	dream of / about
indulge in	enquire about	insist on
joke about	look forward to	object to
participate in	persist in	*prevent from
profit from	*prohibit from	protest about / against
*punish for	refrain from	rely on
*save from	succeed in	*suspect of
*warn about	worry about	

* These verbs usually have the construction:

verb – person or pronoun (someone) – preposition – gerund
(e.g. to accuse someone of doing something)

‡ These verbs can also be followed by a 'that ...' clause (without the preposition).

The verb *decide* can also be followed by an infinitive with 'to'.

It is necessary to distinguish between verbs followed by an infinitive with 'to' (*I want to go; I expect to win*), and the verbal forms above which themselves include the preposition 'to' (and are therefore followed by a gerund).

7 Some adjectives, usually used with the verb **to be**, are also followed by a **preposition and a gerund**. These include:

accustomed to	annoyed about	ashamed of	aware of
capable of	doubtful about	fed up with	fond of
frightened of	guilty of	interested in	keen on
proud of	responsible for	serious about	tired of
used to			

8 The following verbs concerned with future **plans and desires** are followed by an **infinitive with 'to'** (*I want to go*):

aim	expect	hope	intend
mean *	plan	want	would like

* If *mean* has the sense of *involve* it is followed by a gerund, e.g. *This will mean moving to a new house*.

9 The verbs **like**, **love** and **hate** can be followed by either an infinitive with 'to' or a gerund. Other verbs concerning **likes and dislikes** are usually followed by a **gerund**:

adore	can't stand	detest	dislike
enjoy	fancy	feel like	loathe

- 10 Many verbs involving encouraging or forcing another person to do something take the **infinitive with 'to'**:

cause	command	compel	convince	encourage
force	incite	induce	inspire	oblige
order	persuade	tempt	urge	

However, equivalent negative verbs are often followed by a preposition and a gerund:

to deter, discourage, dissuade someone from doing something

- 11 The following verbs are difficult to classify into meaningful groups.

These verbs are followed by an **infinitive with 'to'**:

*advise	afford	‡agree	appear	‡arrange
*ask	attempt	be able	*bribe	*challenge
‡claim	‡demand	fail	‡guarantee	hesitate
invite	manage	offer	promise	refuse
seem	stay	struggle	*teach (how)	*tell (how)
tend	*train (how)	‡understand (how)		undertake
volunteer	‡wish	wonder (how)		

These verbs are followed by a **gerund**:

acknowledge	‡admit (to)	avoid	cannot help
carry on	‡consider	contemplate	count on
defer	delay	deny	finish
give up	‡imagine	involve	keep on
‡mind	miss	practise	postpone
put off	resist	‡risk	suggest

* Indicates that the construction is often 'to (verb) someone to (infinitive) something'.

‡ Indicates that the verb can also be followed by a 'that ...' clause.

These verbs can be followed by **either an infinitive with 'to' or by a gerund**:

begin	continue	forbid	hate
like	love	*need	prefer
propose	recommend	start	‡stop

* *I need to repair this. The car needs repairing.*

‡ You can stop doing something in order to do something else.

He stopped smoking last summer.

He stopped [writing] to look up a word in the dictionary.

In the following three exercises, you have to write out the sentences, using the correct form of the verbs in brackets, adding prepositions or other words as necessary. Use the simple present and past tenses where possible.

Exercise 10

- 1 Three of the bank's employees were (accuse) yesterday (buy) shares while in possession of inside information.
- 2 The treasurer (admit) (lose) \$10,000 of the company's money in a Las Vegas casino.
- 3 The consultants (advise) the company (restructure) its middle management.
- 4 The management (agree) (show) the documents to the trade union representatives.
- 5 Buying just one ordinary share will (allow) (vote) at the Annual General Meeting.
- 6 The production manager (apologize) (arrive) late for the meeting.
- 7 I have (arrange) (come back) at short notice if any problems arise during my holiday.
- 8 Because of the cash flow crisis, the company (attempt) (borrow) a further \$100,000.
- 9 The company's staff were asked to (avoid) (speak) to journalists.
- 10 We are not (aware) (lose) any customers because of these delays.
- 11 The company (believe) (distribute) profits among both staff and shareholders.
- 12 Quality problems were (blame) the company (lose) 20% of its market share.
- 13 The new factory must (be capable) (produce) a range of different products.
- 14 I hate fog. I (can't stand) (wait) for hours at airports.
- 15 Despite the mixed market research reports, we are going to (carry on) (develop) this product.
- 16 The R&D department (complain) (lose) 10% of its budget.
- 17 Rather than diversifying, we are going to (concentrate) (make) our traditional products.
- 18 I would like to thank all of you for (contribute) (increase) our sales this past year.
- 19 OK, you have (convince) me (stay) with the company.
- 20 We cannot (count on) (remain) market leader for ever.

Exercise 11

- 1 We have (delay) (introduce) the product until the New Year.
- 2 The advertising department (deny) (mislead) the public about the product.
- 3 Because of our huge advertising budget, competitors (deter) (enter) the market.
- 4 This joint venture will (enable) (enter) the Chinese market.
- 5 Do you really (enjoy) (work) 50 hours a week?
- 6 The company (fail) (increase) its sales in the first quarter of the year.
- 7 The government wants to (forbid) companies (advertise) alcoholic products on television.

- 8 I (forget) (arrange) the meeting with the suppliers.
- 9 Many middle managers say they (be frightened) (lose) their jobs.
- 10 We'll probably (give up) (send) publicity material to schools and universities.
- 11 We (guarantee) (provide) free after-sales service for two years.
- 12 You (had better) (check) those figures before the meeting on Monday.
- 13 The new law should (help) investors (understand) a company's financial situation more easily.
- 14 You really ought to (enquire) (join) the employers' association.
- 15 The union representative (insist) (speak) to the managing director.
- 16 The company (be interested) (expand) into Latin American markets.
- 17 The marketing department (be keen on) (increase) the proportion of sales on credit.
- 18 We intend to (let) each subsidiary (decide) for itself.
- 19 In the hope that my proposition will interest you, I (look forward) (hear) from you.
- 20 The law on partnerships is designed to (make) professional people (act) responsibly.

Exercise 12

- 1 Would you (mind) (share) an office with Mr Vile?
- 2 We all have to (participate) (improve) the quality of our customer service.
- 3 We are not (permit) (use) comparative advertising.
- 4 If you (persist) (arrive) at work at 10 o'clock, your contract will be terminated.
- 5 Your job is to (persuade) politicians (accept) our industry's proposals.
- 6 We (promise) (refund) dissatisfied customers within 30 days.
- 7 The company was (punish) (break) health and safety regulations.
- 8 Two years on, we (regret) (abandon) the North African market.
- 9 Because of the recession at home, we now (rely on) (make) profits abroad.
- 10 I (remember) (start) work there at the age of 16.
- 11 Did you (remember) (post) the invitations to the Christmas party?
- 12 We will probably (start) (produce) the new model within 18 months.
- 13 We are still (struggle) (restore) sales to their 1999 level.
- 14 You will never (succeed) (get) a job with a CV that looks as bad as that.
- 15 He was (suspect) (sell) information to a rival company.
- 16 She (be used to) (work) late in the evenings, if necessary.
- 17 I was never (train) (operate) this machinery.
- 18 The bank (undertake) (buy) any bonds for which they cannot find purchasers.
- 19 She (used to) (work) late in the evenings when she ran the development project.
- 20 I (would rather) (earn) less money and have a shorter working week.

Glossary

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	SPANISH
above par (adj.)	au-dessus du pair	über Pari, über dem Nennwert	sopra la pari	a premio, por encima de la par
absolute advantage	avantage absolu	absoluter Kostenvorteil	vantaggio assoluto	ventaja absoluta
accelerated depreciation	amortissement accéléré	beschleunigte, vorzeitige, erhöhte Abschreibung	ammortamento accelerato	depreciación acelerada
account	compte	Konto	conto	cuenta
accountant	comptable	Buchhalter/in, Wirtschaftsprüfer/in	ragioniere	contable, contador
accounting	comptabilité	Buchhaltung, Rechnungswesen	contabilità generale	contabilidad
accounting equation	équation comptable	Bilanzgleichung, Kontenabstimmung	pareggio dei conti	ecuaciones contables
accounting period	exercice	Abrechnungszeitraum	esercizio	ejercicio
accounting principles	principes comptables	Bilanzierungsrichtlinien	principi di contabilità	principios contables
accounts payable / creditors	effets à payer, fournisseurs	Kreditoren	conto creditori diversi	cuentas a pagar
accounts receivable / debtors	effets à recevoir, clients	Debitoren	conto debitori diversi	cuentas a recibir
add (v.)	ajouter	hinzufügen	aggiungere	añadir
add up (v.)	totaliser, additionner	addieren	sommare	sumar
administer (v.)	administrer	verwalten	amministrare	administrar
administration	administration	Verwaltung	gestione	administración
administrator	administrateur	Verwalter/in	amministratore	administrador
advertisement	annonce	Anzeige	inserzione pubblicitaria	anuncio publicitario
advertising	publicité	Werbung	pubblicità	publicidad
advertising agency	agence de publicité	Werbebüro	agenzia pubblicitaria	agencia de publicidad
advertising campaign	campagne publicitaire	Werbekampagne, Werbefeldzug	campagna pubblicitaria	campaña publicitaria
advertising copy	copie publicitaire	Werbetext	testo pubblicitario	material publicitario
advertising medium	support publicitaire	Werbemittel	mezzo pubblicitario	medio de publicidad
after-sales service	service après-vente	Kundendienst	servizio di assistenza clienti	servicio post-venta
aggregate demand	demande agrégée	Gesamtnachfrage	domanda aggregata	demanda agregada
aggregate supply	offre agrégée	Gesamtangebot	offerta aggregata	oferta agregada
agriculture	agriculture	Landwirtschaft	agricoltura	agricultura
allocate (v.)	allouer	zuteilen	stanzare, ripartire	asignar
Annual General Meeting / Annual Meeting of Stockholders	assemblée générale des actionnaires	Jahreshauptversammlung	assemblea generale degli azionisti	junta general de los accionistas
annual report	rapport annuel	Jahresbericht	relazione annuale di bilancio	memoria anual
applicant / candidate	candidat	Bewerber/in	candidato, richiedente	candidato
application	demande	Bewerbung	domanda, richiesta	solicitud
application form	formulaire de candidature	Antragsformular	modulo di domanda	formulario de solicitud
apply (v.)	postuler	sich bewerben	fare domanda	postular, solicitar
appoint (v.)	nommer	ernennen	nominare	nombrar
appreciate (v.)	apprécier	im Wert steigen	aumentare di valore	apreciar
appreciation	appréciation	Wertsteigerung	apprezzamento, valutazione	apreciación, subida
arbitrageur	arbitragiste	Arbitragehändler	arbitraggista, operatore d'arbitraggio	arbitrajista
articles of association	statuts d'une société	Gesellschaftsvertrag	statuto sociale	artículos de asociación
assemble (v.)	monter	montieren	montare, assemblare	montar
assembly line	chaîne de montage	Montageband	catena di montaggio	línea de montaje
asset	actif	Aktiva, Vermögenswert	attività, bene	activo
audit (v.)	vérifier et certifier	Revision durchführen	verificare	revisar, auditar

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auditing	vérification comptable	Revision, Rechnungsprüfung	revisione dei conti	revisión de cuentas
auditor	vérificateur aux comptes	Rechnungsprüfer/in	revisore dei conti	auditor
authorized capital	capital autorisé	genehmigtes Kapital	capitale nominale	capital autorizado
average cost	coût moyen	Durchschnittskosten	costo medio	coste medio
backward integration	rachat de fournisseurs	Rückwärtsintegration	integrazione avallé	integración 'hacia atrás'
balance	solde, bilan	Saldo, Bilanz	saldo, residuo	saldo, balance
balance of payments	balance des paiements	Zahlungsbilanz	bilancia dei pagamenti	balance de pagos
balance of trade	balance commerciale	Handelsbilanz	bilancia commerciale	balance comercial
balance sheet	bilan	Bilanz	statio patrimoniale	balance
bank loan	prêt bancaire	Bankdarlehen	prestito bancario	préstamo bancario
banknote	billet de banque	Banknote	banconota	billete de banco
bankrupt (adj.)	en faillite	bankrott	fallito	quebrado, en bancarrota
bankruptcy	faillite	Bankrott, Konkurs	fallimento, bancarotta	quiebra
bank statement	relevé de compte	Kontoauszug	estratto conto	extracto de cuenta
bank transfer	virement bancaire	Banküberweisung	bonifico bancario	transferencia bancaria
barriers to entry	barrières à l'entrée	Marktzutrittsschranken, Marktzugangs- beschränkungen	barriera all'entrata	barreras a la entrada
barter / counter-trade	troc, commerce compensé	Tauschhandel, ~geschäft	baratto	trueque
base rate / prime rate	taux de base, taux préférentiel	Leitzins	tasso primario	tipo de interés base
bearer	porteur, détenteur	Inhaber/in	portatore	portador
bearer security	valeur au porteur	Inhaber-effekten	titoli al portatore	valor al portador
below par (adj.)	au-dessous du pair	unter dem Nennwert, unter Pari	sotto la pari	por debajo de la par
benefit	avantage	Vorteil	beneficio, indennità, sussidio	ventaja
bid	offre	Angebot	licitazione, offerta	oferta
bid (v.)	offrir	bieten	offrire	ofrecer
blue chip	valeur sure	erstklassig	titoli di prim'ordine	valor seguro
board of directors	conseil d'administration	Geschäftsleitung, Vorstand, Verwaltungsrat	consiglio di amministrazione	consejo de administración
bond	obligation	Anleihe, Obligation	obbligazione, titolo del tesoro	obligación
bondholder	obligataire	Obligationär/in	obbligazionista	obligacionista
bonus shares / stock dividend	actions d'attribution	Gratisaktien	azioni gratuite, dividendo nominale	acciones dadas como primas
bookkeeping	comptabilité	Buchhaltung	contabilità	contabilidad
book value	valeur comptable	Buchwert	valore contabile, valore nominale	valor contable
boom	forte hausse	Hausse, Boom, Aufschwung, (Hoch)konjunktur	rapida espansione economica	bonanza
borrow (v.)	emprunter	(ent)leihen, Kredit aufnehmen	prendere in prestito	pedir prestado
borrower	emprunteur	Kreditnehmer/in	mutuatario	prestatario
boss	patron, chef	Chef/in, Boss	capo	jefe
branch	succursale, filiale	Filiale, Zweigstelle	succursale, filiale	sucursal, filial
brand	marque	Marke	marca, marchio	marca
bribe	pot-de-vin	Bestechungsgeld	bustarella	soborno
bribe (v.)	corrompre	bestechen	corrompere	sobornar
bribery	corruption	Bestechung	corruzione	soborno, corrupción
broker	courtier	Makler/in	mediatore, intermediario	corredor
budget	budget	Budget	bilancio di previsione	presupuesto
built-in obsolescence	désuétude incorporée	geplanter Verschleiß	obsolescenza automatica	obsolescencia intrínseca

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business	affaires	Geschäft	affari	negocios
business cycle	cycle économique	Konjunkturzyklus	ciclo economico	ciclo económico
business plan	plan stratégique	Geschäftsplan	piano gestionale dell'impresa	plan de negocio
buy (v.)	acheter	kaufen	comprare, acquistare	comprar
buyer	acheteur	Käufer/in	acquirente	comprador
call option	option d'achat	Kaufoption	opzione di acquisto	opción de compra
cap / ceiling (of floating interest rate)	taux plafond	Höchstzinssatz	tetto, plafond	techo, banda superior
capital / principal	capital, principal	Kapital	somma capitale	capital, principal
capital gains tax	impôt sur les plus-values en capital	Kapitalertragssteuer	imposta sui redditi di capitali	impuesto sobre las ganancias en capital
capital goods	biens d'équipement	Investitionsgüter	beni strumentali	bienes de inversión
capital transfer tax	impôt sur le transfert de capitaux	Kapitalverkehrssteuer	tassa sui trasferimenti di capitale, imposta di successione	impuesto sobre las transferencias de capitales
cash flow	cash flow, flux de trésorerie	Cash-flow, Kapitalfluss	flusso di cassa	flujo de caja
chain of command	voie hiérarchique	Befehlskette	linea gerarchica	cadena de mando
cheap (adj.)	bon marché	billig, günstig	a buon mercato, economico	barato
cheque / check	chèque	Scheck	assegno	cheque, talón
chief executive officer (CEO) / managing director	directeur général	Generaldirektor/in, Geschäftsführer/in	direttore generale, amministratore delegato	director general
classified advertisement	petite annonce	Kleinanzeige	inserzione pubblicitaria, annuncio economico	anuncio por palabras
coin	pièce de monnaie	Münze	moneta	moneda
collateral	nantissement	Sicherheit, Pfand, Hinterlegung	garanzia reale	garantía colateral
collective bargaining	négociations de conventions collectives	Tarifverhandlungen	contrattazione collettiva	negociación colectiva
commerce	commerce	Handel	commercio	comercio
commercial bank	banque commerciale	Handelsbank	banca commerciale	banco comercial
commission	commission	Provision	commissione, provvigione	comisión
commodity	marchandise, produit	Gut, (Handels)ware, Erzeugnis	merce, bene economico	mercadería
company / corporation	société, entreprise	Unternehmen, Gesellschaft	società per azione, azienda	compañía, sociedad
comparative advantage	avantage comparatif	Vergleichsvorteil	vantaggio comparato	ventaja comparativa
compete (v.)	concurrencer	konkurrieren, im Wettbewerb stehen	competere	competir
competition	concurrence	Wettbewerb, Konkurrenz	concorrenza	competencia
competitive (adj.)	compétitif	konkurrenzfähig, wettbewerbsfähig	concorrenziale, competitivo	competidor, competitivo
competitive advantage	avantage compétitif	Wettbewerbsvorteil	vantaggio competitivo	ventaja competitiva
competitor	concurrent	Konkurrent/in	concorrente	competidor
component	composant	Bestandteil	componente	componente
consumer / end-user	consommateur	Verbraucher/in	consumatore, utente	consumidor
consumer goods	biens de consommation	Konsumgüter	beni di consumo	bienes de consumo
consumption	consommation	Verbrauch	consumo	consumición, consumo
contract (n.)	contrat	Vertrag, Auftrag	contratto, appalto	contrato
contraction (of economy)	contraction	Schrumpfung	contrazione	contracción
convertible bond	obligation convertible	Wandelobligation	obbligazione convertibile	obligación convertible
corporation tax	impôt sur le bénéfice	Körperschaftssteuer	imposta sulle società	impuesto sobre los beneficios
costs	frais, charges	Kosten	costi	costes
cost accounting	comptabilité analytique	Kalkulation	analisi dei costi	contabilidad analítica
cost of living	coût de la vie	Lebenshaltungskosten	costo della vita	coste de la vida

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counter-cyclical advertising	publicité contre-cyclique	antizyklische Werbung	pubblicità anticiclica	publicidad anticíclica
coupon (interest rate)	coupon	Coupon	cedola	cupón
crash	krach boursier	Zusammenbruch, Börsenkrach	crac, tracollo	crack bursátil
credit (v.)	créditer	kreditieren, gutschreiben	accreditare	abonar en cuenta
credit standing / credit rating / creditworthiness	degré de solvabilité	Kreditwürdigkeit	posizione finanziaria, capacità di credito	limite de crédito
creditor	créancier, créiteur	Gläubiger/in	creditore	acreedor
currency	monnaie	Währung	valuta	moneda
current / checking account	compte courant	Kontokorrent	conto corrente	cuenta corriente
customer / client	client	Kunde, Kundin	cliente, utente	cliente
customs duties	droits de douane	Zollabgaben	dazi doganali	arancel de aduanas
dealer	marchand, négociant	Händler/in	distributore, commerciante	negociante
debit	débit	Schuldposten	addebito	débito
debit (v.)	débiter	debitieren, belasten, im Soll verbuchen	addebitare	cargar en cuenta
debt	dette	Schuld	debito	deuda
debtor	débiteur	Schuldner/in	debitore	deudor
decentralization	décentralisation	Dezentralisierung	decentralizzazione	descentralización
decline stage	phase de déclin	Rückgangsphase	fase di declin	etapa de declive
deduct (v.)	déduire	abziehen	detrarre	deducir
delivery	livraison	(Aus)lieferung	consegna	entrega
demand	demande	Nachfrage	domanda	demanda
department store	grand magasin	Warenhaus	grande magazzino	grandes almacenes
deposit (n.)	dépôt, acompte	Anzahlung, Guthaben	deposito	depósito, fianza
deposit (v.)	déposer	deponieren	depositare	depositar
deposit / time / notice account	compte de dépôt	Sparkonto	deposito vincolato, a tempo	cuenta con depósito
depositor	déposant	Einzahler/in	depositante	depositante
depreciate (v.)	déprécier	entwerten, abwerten	deprezzare, ammortizzare	depreciar
depreciation (accounting)	dépréciation, amortissement	Entwertung, Abschreibung	deprezzamento, ammortamento	depreciación, amortización
depreciation (money)	dépréciation	Geldabwertung	svalutazione	desvalorización
depression	dépession	Flaute, Baisse	depressione	depresión
deregulation	déréglementation	Deregulierung, Aufhebung- einschränkender Bestimmungen	deregolazione, liberalizzazione	desregulación
derivatives	instruments dérivés	Derivate	(prodotti) derivati	(instrumentos) derivados
devaluation	dévaluation	Währungsabwertung	svalutazione	devaluación
developing country	pays en voie de développement	Entwicklungsland	paese in via di sviluppo	país en vías de desarrollo
differential advantage	avantage différentiel	Wettbewerbsvorteil	vantaggio differenziale	ventaja diferencial
diminishing returns	rendements décroissants	Ertragsrückgang, abnehmender Ertrag	rendimenti decrescenti	rendimientos decrecientes
direct debit	débit direct	Direktabbuchung	addebitamento	débito directo
direct tax	impôt direct	direkte Steuern	imposta diretta	impuesto directo
discount	rabais, remise, escompte	Diskont, Skonto	sconto	descuento, rebaja
discount rate	taux d'escompte	Diskontsatz	tasso di sconto	tipo de descuento
disequilibrium	déséquilibre	Ungleichgewicht	squilibrio, instabilità	desequilibrio
dismiss (v.)	congédier, licencier	entlassen	licenziare	despedir
distribution channels	circuits de distribution	Absatzwege	canali di distribuzione	canales de distribución
distributor	distributeur, concessionnaire	Verteiler/in, Verkaufsagent/in, Konzessionär/in	distributore, concessionario	distribuidor, concesionario

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diversify (v.)	diversifier	diversifizieren, Anlagen streuen	diversificare	diversificar
division of labour	division du travail	Arbeitsteilung	divisione del lavoro	reparto del trabajo
domestic (adj.)	intérieur, national	inländisch	nazionale, interno	doméstico, nacional
double-entry bookkeeping	comptabilité à double entrée	doppelte Buchhaltung	contabilità partita doppia	contabilidad a doble entrada
down-market (adj.)	bas-de-gamme	für den Massenmarkt	medio, mediocre	gama baja
downturn	baisse	Rückgang, Baisse, Flaute	ribasso, flessione	descenso, bajada
durable goods	biens durables	langlebige Gebrauchsgüter	beni durevoli	bienes duraderos
earn (v.)	gagner	verdienen	guadagnare	ganar
economic (adj.)	économique	wirtschaftlich	economico	económico
economical (adj.)	bon marché	wirtschaftlich, sparsam	economico	económico, barato
economic agents	agents économiques	Wirtschaftssubjekte	soggetti economici	agentes económicos
economies of scale	économies d'échelle	Einsparungen durch erhöhte Produktion	economie di scala	economías de escala
economist	économiste	Ökonom/in, Betriebswirt/in, Volkswirt/in	economista	economista
economize (v.)	économiser	sparen	risparmiare	economizar
economy, the	économie	Wirtschaft	economia	economía
efficiency	efficacité	Effizienz	efficienza	eficiencia
efficient (adj.)	efficace	wirksam	efficiente	eficaz
election	élection	Wahlen	elezione	elección
emission	émission	Ausstrahlung	emissione	emisión
employ (v.)	employer	beschäftigen	impiegare, assumere	emplear
employee	employé	Angestellte/r	impiegato	empleado
employer	employeur	Arbeitgeber/in	datore di lavoro	empleador, patrón
employment	emploi	Beschäftigung	impiego	empleo
employment agency	agence de placement	Stellenvermittlung	agenzia di collocamento	agencia de empleo
environment	environnement	Umwelt	ambiente	medio ambiente
entrepreneur	entrepreneur	Unternehmer/in	imprenditore	emprendedor
entrepreneurship	esprit d'entreprise	Unternehmergeist	imprenditorialità, capacità imprenditoriale	espíritu emprendedor
equilibrium	équilibre	Gleichgewicht	equilibrio	equilibrio
Eurocurrency	Eurodevise	Eurowährung	Eurodivisa	Eurodivisa
exchange controls	contrôles des changes	Devisenkontrolle	controlli sui cambi	control de cambio
exchange rate	taux de change	Wechselkurs	tasso di cambio	tipo de cambio
excise duties	droits de régie	Verbrauchssteuern	accisa, imposte di fabbricazione	impuestos de exacción
executive	cadre supérieur	Exekutive	dirigente	gerente, administrador
exercise price / strike price	prix d'exercice	Ausführungspreis, Basispreis	prezzo di esercizio	precio de ejercicio
expansion	expansion	Erweiterung	espansione	expansión
expenditure	dépenses	Ausgaben, Aufwand	spesa	gasto
export (v.)	exporter	ausführen, exportieren	esportare	exportar
export (n.)	exportation	Ausfuhr, Export	esportazione	exportación
external audit	contrôle externe	außerbetriebliche Revision	revisione esterna	auditoría externa
externalities / spillovers	effets externes	Externalitäten, Überschüsse	esternalità, effetti diffusivi	externalidad
extraction	extraction	Gewinnung	estrazione	extracción
factors of production	facteurs de production	Produktionsfaktoren	fattori della produzione	factores de producción
factory	fabrique, usine	Fabrik	fabbrica	fábrica
financial instruments	instruments financiers	Finanzierungsinstrumente, kreditpolitisches Instrumentarium	strumenti mezzi finanziari	instrumentos financieros
financial statements	états financiers	Finanzbilanz	conti finanziari	cuentas financieras
financial year	exercice	Geschäftsjahr	anno fiscale	año económico

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finished goods	produits finis	Fertigerzeugnisse, Fertigprodukte	prodotti finiti	productos acabados
fire / sack (v.)	virer, congédier	feuern, entlassen	licenziare, congedare	despedir
fixed exchange rate	taux de change fixe	fester Wechselkurs	cambio fisso	tipo de cambio fijo
flexible (adj.)	variable	flexibel	flessibile	flexible
float a company (v.)	lancer une entreprise	eine Gesellschaft gründen	lanciare una società in borsa	lanzar una compañía
floating exchange rate	taux de change flottant	flexibler Wechselkurs	cambio fluttuante	tipo de cambio flotante
floating / variable rate bond / note	obligation à taux d'intérêt variable	Anleihe mit variablem Zinssatz	obbligazione a tasso d'interesse variabile	pagaré con tipo de interés flotante
floor (of floating interest rate)	taux plancher	Mindestzinssatz	livello minimo	banda inferior
flotation	lancement	Gründung	avviamento, lancio	flotación
fluctuate (v.)	fluctuer	schwanken	oscillare	fluctuar
foodstuffs	denrées alimentaires	Nahrungsmittel, Lebensmittel	generi alimentari	géneros alimenticios
foreign exchange	devises	Devisen	valuta estera	divisas extranjeras
foreign exchange market	marché des changes	Devisenmarkt	mercato dei cambi	mercado de divisas
forward integration	rachat de distributeurs	Vorwärtsintegration	integrazione amonte	integración 'hacia adelante'
forward transaction	opération à terme	Termingeschäft	operazione a termine	operación a término
founders	fondateurs	Gründer/innen	fondatori	fundadores
franchise	franchise	Lizenz	appalto, concessione	franquicia
free enterprise	libre entreprise	freie Wirtschaft	libertà economica	libre empresa
free sample	échantillon gratuit	kostenlose Probe	campione gratuito	muestra gratuita
free trade	libre-échange	Freihandel	libero scambio	comercio libre
friendly takeover	rachat amical	freundliche Übernahme	rilevamento amichevole	o.p.a. amistosa
full employment	plein-emploi	Vollbeschäftigung	piena occupazione	pleno empleo
full-time (adj.)	à plein-temps	hauptberuflich, ganztägig	a tempo pieno	a jornada completa
functional organization	organisation fonctionnelle	funktionale Organisation, Berufsverband	organizzazione funzionale	organización funcional
funds	fonds	(Geld)mittel, Fonds	fondi	fondos
funds flow statement	tableau de financement	Bewegungsbilanz, Kapitalflussrechnung	rendiconto del flusso finanziato	cuenta de caja
futures contract	contrat à terme	Terminkontrakt	contratto a termine	contrato de futuros
futures market	marché à terme	Terminmarkt	mercato a termine	mercado de futuros
goal	but	Ziel	obiettivo	objetivo
go bankrupt (v.)	faire faillite	Konkurs anmelden	fallire	caer en quiebra
going concern	affaire qui marche	gewinnbringendes Unternehmen	impresa ben avviata, impresa in attivo	negocio en marcha
gold convertibility	convertibilité-or	Konvertierbarkeit in Gold	convertibilità in oro	convertibilidad en oro
goods	biens	Güter	beni	bienes
goodwill	fonds de commerce, clientèle	Geschäftswert, Firmenwert, Goodwill, geschäftliches Ansehen	redditività dell'impresa	valor de la clientela
go-slow / slowdown	grève perlée	Bummelstreik, Verlangsamung	sciopero bianco	huelga de producción lenta (huelga de celo)
government	gouvernement, état, administration publique	Regierung	governo	gobierno
gross domestic product (GDP)	produit intérieur brut (PIB)	Bruttoinlandsprodukt	prodotto interno lordo	producto interior bruto
gross national product (GNP)	produit national brut (PNB)	Bruttosozialprodukt	prodotto nazionale lordo	producto nacional bruto
gross profit	bénéfice brut	Bruttogewinn	utile lordo	beneficio bruto
growth	croissance	Wachstum	crescita	crecimiento
growth stock	titre avec perspectives de croissance	wachstumsorientierte Wertpapiere	titolo di sviluppo	título de crecimiento

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growth stage guarantee / warranty	phase de croissance garantie	Wachstumsphase Garantie	stadio di crescita garanzia	etapa de crecimiento garantía
hard currency headhunters	monnaie forte chasseurs de têtes	harte Währung Personalabwerber/in, Headhunter	valuta forte cacciatori di teste	divisa fuerte cazatalentos
headquarters / head office	siège	Hauptgeschäftsstelle, Firmensitz, Gesellschaftssitz	sede, ufficio centrale	oficina central
hedging	couverture	Hedge-Geschäft, Preisabsicherung	operazione di copertura	cobertura
hedge (v.)	se couvrir	sich absichern	ridurre il rischio di fluttuazione di prezzo	cubrirse
hire (staff) (v.) hire purchase / instalment credit	employer, engager location-vente	einstellen Teilzahlung, Ratenkauf	assumere, noleggiare acquisto rateale	emplear, contratar compra a plazos
historical cost accounting	comptabilité aux coûts d'acquisition primitif	Anschaffungskosten Buchhaltung	contabilità a costo historico di acquisto	contabilidad a costes históricos
hoarding / billboard	panneau d'affichage	Plakatwand	cartellone per affissioni	valla pubblicitaria
horizontal integration	intégration horizontale	horizontale Verflechtung	integrazione orizzontale	integración horizontal
hostile takeover	rachat hostile	feindliche Übernahme	acquisizione ostile	o.p.a. hostil
human relations	relations humaines	zwischenmenschliche Beziehungen	relazioni umane	relaciones humanas
human resources	ressources humaines	Personalabteilung, Personal	risorse umane	recursos humanos
imperfect competition	concurrence imparfait	ungleiche Wettbewerbs- bedingungen	concorrenza imperfetta	competencia imperfecta
import (v.) import (n.) import quota	importer importation quota d'importation	einführen, importieren Einfuhr, Import Einfuhrkontingent, Importquote	importare importazione quota d'importazione	importar importación cuota de importación
importer incentive income / earnings / revenue	importateur incitation revenu	Importeur/in Anreiz Einkommen	importatore incentivo reddito, guadagni, introiti	importador estimulo, incentivo ingresos, renta
income tax indirect tax	impôt sur le revenu impôt indirect	Einkommenssteuer indirekte Steuern	imposta sul reddito imposta indiretta	impuesto sobre la renta impuesto indirecto
industrial dispute	conflit social	Arbeitskampf	vertenza sindacale	conflicto laboral
industrial espionage	espionnage industriel	Wirtschaftsspionage	spionaggio industriale	espionaje industrial
industrial relations	relations humaines dans l'entreprise	Verhältnis zwischen Arbeitgebern und Arbeitnehmern	rapporti industriali	relaciones humanas industriales
industrialist industry inefficiency	industriel industrie inefficacité	Industrielle/r Industrie, Gewerbe Unwirksamkeit, Unwirtschaftlichkeit	imprenditore industria inefficienza	industrial industria incompetencia
inflation rate inherit (v.)	taux d'inflation hériter	Inflationsrate erben	tasso d'inflazione ereditare	tasa de inflación heredar
inputs insider share-dealing	éléments entrants opérations d'initié	Inputs Insider-Geschäfte, ~~Handel	entrate compra vendita di azioni 'insider'	aportación operaciones de iniciados
insolvent (adj.)	insolvable	zahlungsunfähig, insolvent	insolvente	insolvente
insolvency institutional investors	insolvabilité, faillite investisseurs institutionnels	Zahlungsunfähigkeit institutionelle Investoren	insolvenza investitori istituzionali	insolvencia inversores institucionales
insurance insurance policy	assurance police d'assurance	Versicherung Versicherungspolice	assicurazione polizza di assicurazione	seguro póliza de seguro

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	SPANISH
insurance premium	prime d'assurance	Versicherungsprämie	premio di assicurazione	prima de póliza de seguro
insure (v.)	assurer	versichern	assicurare	asegurar
inter-bank market	marché interbancaire	Interbank(en)markt	mercato interbancario	mercado interbancario
interest rate	taux d'intérêt	Zinssatz	tasso d'interesse	tipo de interés
internal audit	contrôle interne	(betriebs)interne Revision	controllo interno, revisione interna	auditoría interna
International Monetary Fund	Fonds Monétaire Internationale	Internationaler Währungsfonds	Fondo Monetario Internazionale	Fondo Monetario Internacional
interview	interview, entretien	Interview	colloquio, intervista	entrevista
intrinsic value	valeur intrinsèque	intrinsischer, wirklicher (wahrer) Wert	valore intrinseco	valor intrínseco
introduction stage	phase d'introduction	Einführungsstadium	fase di presentazione introduzione	etapa de introducción
inventory / stock	stock	Inventar	inventario	inventario
investment	investissement, placement	Investition, Anlage	investimento	inversión
investment bank / merchant bank	banque d'affaires	Handelsbank	banca d'investimenti	banco de inversiones
investment grade	classification des émetteurs de dette	Investitionsgrad	classificazione del rischio di investimento	calidad de inversión
investor	investisseur	Investor/in, Anleger/in	investitore	inversor
invisible exports	exportations invisibles	unsichtbare Exporte	esportazioni invisibili	exportaciones invisibles
issue	émission	Emission, Ausgabe	emissione	emisión
issue (v.)	émettre	emittieren, ausgeben	emettere, distribuire	emitir
job	emploi	Beruf, Arbeitsplatz, (Arbeits)stelle	impiego, lavoro	empleo, trabajo
job application	candidature à un emploi	Stellenbewerbung	domanda di lavoro	solicitud de empleo
job description	description du poste	Stellenbeschreibung, Arbeitsplatzbeschreibung	descrizione del lavoro	descripción del trabajo
job security	sécurité de l'emploi	Sicherheit des Arbeitsplatzes	sicurezza del posto del lavoro	seguridad en el trabajo
job-sharing	partage du travail	Job-sharing	condivisione del lavoro	plan para compartir empleo
junk bond	obligation 'pourrie'	niedrig eingestuftes Wertpapier	obbligazioni a rischio	bono basura
labor union / trade union	syndicat	Gewerkschaft	sindacato	sindicato
labour / labor	main d'oeuvre	Arbeitskraft	lavoro, mano d'opera	trabajo
labour relations	relations patronat-syndicats	Arbeitsverhältnisse	relazioni industriali	relaciones patrón-obrero
land	terre	Grundstücke	terra	tierra
launch (n.)	lancement	Gründung, Markteinführung	lancio	lanzamiento
launch (v.)	lancer sur le marché	auf den Markt bringen	lanciare	lanzar
launder (money) (v.)	blanchir	waschen	riciclaggio del denaro sporco	blanquear
lay off (v.)	licencier	kündigen	licenziare, sospendere	despedir
lead time	délai	Lieferzeit	tempo di consegna	margen de tiempo
legislation	législation	Gesetzgebung	legislazione	legislación
lend (v.)	prêter	leihen	prestare	prestar
lender	prêteur	Geldverleiher/in	prestatore	prestamista
lender of last resort	prêteur de dernier recours	letztmögliche/r Gläubiger/in	mutuante di ultima istanza	prestamista de última instancia
leverage	effet de levier	Leverage-Effekt	rapporto d'indebitamento	apalancamiento
leveraged buyout	rachat d'une société par effet de levier	Gesellschaftsübernahme mit fremder Finanzierung	acquisizione con capitale da terzi	adquisición apalancada

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	SPANISH
liability (balance sheet) limited liability	passif responsabilité limitée	Haftung, Passiva beschränkte Haftung	passivo responsabilità limitata	pasivo responsabilidad limitada
line authority	autorité hiérarchique	Linienverantwortung, Leitungsstruktur	autorità gerarchica	autoridad jerárquica
line-filling	enrichissement d'une ligne de produits	auffüllen der Linie Schließung von Produktionslücken	arricchimento della gamma	enriquecimiento de una gama de productos
line-stretching	extension d'une ligne de produits	Produktenerweiterung	ampliamento della gamma	extensión de una gama de productos
liquidate / wind up (v.)	liquider	abwickeln, auflösen, liquidieren	liquidare	liquidar
liquidation / receivership / winding up	liquidation	Auflösung, Liquidation	liquidazione amministrazione controllata	liquidación
liquidator / receiver loan lobbying	liquidateur emprunt, prêt lobbying, influence	Abwickler/in Anleihe Lobbyismus betreiben, Einfluß nehmen	liquidatore, curatore prestito pressioni di gruppi d'interesse	liquidador empréstito cabildeo, grupo de presión
location long run long-term (adj.) loophole loss loss-leader pricing	emplacement long-terme à long-terme faillie perte vente par produits d'appel	Plazierung (auf) lange Sicht langfristig Gesetzeslücke Verlust Lock(vogel)angebot	posizione lungo termine a lunga scadenza scappatoia, espediente perdita prezzo di lancio	emplazamiento largo plazo a largo plazo escapatoria pérdida precio de lanzamiento
maintenance management management, the	entretien gestion d'entreprise la direction	Instandhaltung Leitung Vorstand	manutenzione gestione direzione amministrazione	mantenimiento gestión dirección
manager manufacturing	directeur production manufacturière	Geschäftsleiter/in Herstellung	direttore industria manifatturiera	director, gerente fabricación manufacturera
marginal cost market market challenger	coût marginal marché challenger, dauphin	Randkosten Markt Marktherausforderer	costo marginale mercato concorrente di mercato	coste marginal mercado competidor de mercado
market economy market failure market follower market forces market leader market price market opportunity	économie de marché faillie de marché suiveur forces du marché meneur de marché prix du marché débouché	Marktwirtschaft Marktversagen Marktmittläufer/in Marktkräfte Marktführer/in Marktpreis Marktchance	economia di mercato insuccesso di mercato gregario di mercato forze di mercato leader di mercato prezzo di mercato possibilità di mercato	economía de mercado fallo de mercado seguidor de mercado fuerzas del mercado líder del mercado precio de mercado oportunidad de mercado
market research market segment market segmentation	études de marché segment de marché segmentation de marché	Marktforschung Marktsegment Marktsegmentierung	ricerca di mercato segmento di mercati segmentazione del mercato	estudio de mercado segmento de mercado segmentación del mercado
market share market value matrix management	part de marché valeur vénale gestion matricielle	Marktanteil Verkehrswert Matrix-Management	quota di mercato valore di mercato gestione a matrice	cuota de mercado valor comercial estructura de gestión por matriz
maturity (of a loan)	maturité, échéance	Fälligkeit	scadenza	maduración, vencimiento
maturity stage measure (v.) media	phase de maturité mesurer médias, supports	Reifestadium messen Medien, Werbeträger	fase di scadenza misurare mass media, mezzi di comunicazione	etapa de maduración medir medios de comunicación

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medium-term (adj.)	à moyen-terme	mittelfristig	a medio termine	a medio plazo
meeting	réunion, assemblée	Versammlung	riunione, assemblea	reunión
merchant	négociant, commerçant	Kaufmann, Kauffrau	mercante, commerciante	comerciante
merchandise	marchandises	Waren, Güter	merce, mercanzia	mercancías
merge (v.)	fusionner	fusionieren	fondersi	fusionar, amalgamar
merger	fusion	Fusion, Verschmelzung	fusione	fusión
middlemen	intermédiaires	Mittelsmänner	mediatore, intermediario	intermediarios
misleading advertising	publicité mensongère	irreführende Werbung	pubblicità ingannevole	publicidad engañosa
mixed economy	économie mixte	gemischte Wirtschaftsform	economia mista	economía mixta
monetary policy	politique monétaire	Geldpolitik	politica monetaria	política monetaria
money	argent	Geld	denaro	dinero
money supply	masse monétaire	Geldmenge, Geldvolumen	massa monetaria, offerta di moneta	oferta de dinero
mortgage	hypothèque	Hypothek	ipoteca	hipoteca
most favoured nation	nation la plus favorisée	Meistbegünstigungs (klausel)	nazione più favorita	la nación más favorecida
motivate (v.)	motiver	motivieren	incitare, stimolare	motivar
multiply (v.)	multiplier	vervielfältigen, multiplizieren	moltiplicare	multiplicar
mutual fund	fonds commun de placement	Anlagefonds	fondo comune d'investimento a capitale variabile	fondo mutualista
natural rate of unemployment	taux de chômage naturel	'natürliche' Arbeitslosenrate	tasso fisiologico di disoccupazione	tasa natural de desempleo
need	besoin	Bedürfnis	bisogno, richiesta	necesidad
negotiate (v.)	négocier	verhandeln	negoziare, contrattare	negociar
negotiation	négociation	Verhandlung	contrattazione	negociación
net assets	actif net	Reinvermögen	attivo netto	activo neto
niche	niche, créneau	Nische	nicchia	nicho
nominal value / face value / par value	valeur nominale	Nominalwert, Nennwert	valore nominale	valor nominal
number / figure	nombre, chiffre	Zahl	numero, cifra	número, cifra
objective (n.)	objectif	Ziel	obiettivo	objetivo
oil crisis	crise pétrolière	Ölkrise	crisi petrolifera	crisis del petróleo
old-age pension	pension de vieillesse	Altersrente	pensione di anzianità	pensión de jubilación
organization chart	organigramme	Unternehmensdiagramm, Organigramm	organigramma	organigrama
outlet	point de vente	Verkaufsstelle	punto vendita	punto de venta
output	production	Ausstoss, Output, Erzeugung	produzione	producción, rendimiento
outsourcing	sous-traitance	Aufträge weitervergeben	subappaltare	subcontratación
over-the-counter	de gré à gré	ausserbörslich	mercato ristretto	mercado no cotizado
overdraft	découvert	Überziehungskredit	scoperto	sobregiro, saldo deudor
overdraw	mettre à découvert	überziehen	andare in rosso	girar en descubierto
overhead / overheads	frais généraux	Generalunkosten, Fixkosten, Betriebskosten	spesa generale	gastos generales
overvalued (adj.)	surévalué	überbewertet	sopravvalutato	sobrevalorado
owe (v.)	devoir	schulden	dovere, essere debitore	deber
own (v.)	posséder	besitzen	possedere	poseer
packaging	emballage	Verpackung	imballaggio confezione	embalaje
patent	licence, brevet	Patent	brevetto	patente
pay (n.)	salaire	Lohn	paga, retribuzione	paga
pay (v.)	payer	zahlen	pagare, liquidare	pagar

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peak (v.)	atteindre un sommet	den Höchststand erreichen	raggiungere il livello massimo	alcanzar la cima
peak (n.)	sommet	Höhepunkt	apice	cima
pegged (adj.)	fixé	festgesetzt	sostenuto, stabilizzato	fijado
pension fund	caisse de retraite	Pensionskasse	fondo pensionistico	fondo de pensiones
perfect competition	concurrence parfaite	uneingeschränkter Wettbewerb	concorrenza perfetta	competencia perfecta
performance	performance	Verrichtung, Leistung	rendimento, prestazione	resultado
personal selling	vente personnalisée	Eigenwerbung, persönlicher Verkauf	vendita personalizzata	venta personalizada
personnel department	département du personnel	Personalabteilung	ufficio del personale	departamento de personal
picket	piquet de grève	Posten, (Streik)posten	picchetto	piquete
planning	planification	Planung	pianificazione	planificación
plant	usine, unité de production	Fabrik	impianto	fábrica, unidad de producción
poison pill	pilule empoisonnée	Anti-übernahme Strategie	pillola avvelenata	píldora envenenada
policy	politique	Politik	politica	política
pollution	pollution	Verunreinigung, Umweltverschmutzung	inquinamento	contaminación
portfolio	portefeuille	Portfolio	portafoglio	cartera
poster	affiche	Plakat, Poster	manifesto	póster
poverty	pauvreté	Armut	povertà	pobreza
premises	locaux	Geschäftsräume, Grundstück und Gebäude	locali, immobili	locales
premium	prime	Prämie, Agio	premio	prima
president / chairman	président	Präsident/in, Vorsitzende/r	presidente	presidente
price (in a store)	prix	Preis	prezzo	precio
price (quoted on market)	cours	Kurs	valore	precio cotizado
principal	principal, capital	Kapitalsumme, Kreditsumme	somma capitale	principal
private limited company	Société à responsabilité limitée	Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung	Società a responsabilità limitata	compañía privada de responsabilidad limitada
produce (v.)	produire	erzeugen, produzieren	produrre	producir
producer	producteur	Produzent, Hersteller	produttore	productor
product life cycle	cycle de vie d'un produit	Produktlebenszyklus	ciclo di vita di un prodotto	ciclo de vida de un producto
product line	ligne de produits	Produktlinie	linea di prodotti	línea de productos
product mix	assortiment de produits	Produktmix, Produktionsprogramm	varietà di prodotti	product mix
product range	gamme de produits	Produktpalette	gamma di prodotti	gama de artículos
profit	profit, bénéfice, gain	Gewinn	profitto, utile	beneficio
profitability	rentabilité	Rentabilität	redditività	rentabilidad
profit and loss account / income statement	compte de résultat, compte de pertes et profits	Erfolgsrechnung	conto profitti e perdite, conto economico	cuenta de pérdidas y ganancias
progressive tax	impôt progressif	progressive Steuern	tassa progressiva	impuesto progresivo
promotion	promotion	Werbung, Beförderung	promozione	promoción
promotional tools	outils promotionnels	Verkaufsförderungsmaßnahmen	strumenti promozionali	herramientas de promoción
proxy	procuration pour l'assemblée générale	Stimmrechts-bevollmächtigte/r	delega, procura	procuración para la junta general de los accionistas
public limited company / corporation	société anonyme	Aktiengesellschaft	società per azioni	sociedad anónima

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public sector	secteur public	öffentlicher Sektor	settore pubblico	sector público
public spending	dépenses publiques	Staatsausgaben	spesa pubblica	gasto público
publicity	relations publiques	Public-Relations	pubblicità	publicidad
purchase (n.)	achat	Kauf	acquisto	compra
purchase (v.)	acheter	kaufen	comprare, acquistare	comprar
purchasing power parity	parité de pouvoirs d'achat	Kaufkraftparität	parità dei poteri d'acquisto	paridad de poder adquisitivo
put option	option de vente	Verkaufsoption	contratto a premio del venditore	opción de venta
quality	qualité	Qualität	qualità	calidad
quantity	quantité	Menge	quantità	cantidad
quote (a price) (v.)	donner (un prix)	angeben	quotare, indicare	cotizar
quoted / listed company	société cotée en bourse	börsennotiertes Unternehmen	società quotata in borsa	compañía cotizada en bolsa
raider	raider	aggressive/r Aktienkäufer/in, 'Übernahmegeier'	assaltatore	raider
rational expectations	anticipations rationnelles	realistische Erwartungen	aspettative razionali	expectativas racionales
raw material	matière première	Rohstoff	materia prima	materia prima
real estate / property	immobilier	unbewegliches Vermögen, Immobilien	(beni) immobili	bienes inmuebles
recruit (v.)	recruter	rekrutieren, einstellen, werben	reclutare, iscrivere nuovi soci	reclutar
recruitment	recrutement	Einstellung	reclutamento, assunzione	reclutamiento
redeemable coupons	bons de réduction	einlösbare Coupons	buoni riscattabili	cupones de reducción
redundancy	licenciement	Entlassung	licenziamento (per eccesso di personale)	despido, baja
reference	référence	Zeugnis, Referenzen	referenze	referencia
register of companies	registre du commerce	Handelsregister	registro di imprese	registro de empresas
regressive tax	impôt régressif	regressive Steuern	imposta regressiva	impuesto regresivo
regulation	réglementation	Vorschrift	regolamentazione	regulación
rent (n.)	loyer	Miete	canone di affitto	alquiler
rent (v.)	louer	mieten, vermieten	affittare	alquilar
repay (v.)	rembourser	zurückzahlen	ripagare, rimborsare	reembolsar
repayment	remboursement	Rückzahlung	ricompensa, rimborso	reembolso
research and development (R&D)	recherche et études	Forschung und Entwicklung	studio e sviluppo	investigación y desarrollo (I&D)
resources	ressources	Mittel, Ressourcen	risorse	recursos
responsibility	responsabilité	Verantwortlichkeit	responsabilità	responsabilidad
retail banks	banques de dépôt	Depositenbanken	banche di raccolta	banca al detalle
retailer	commerçant	Einzelhändler/in	dettagliante	minorista, detallista
retirement	retraite	Rücktritt, Pensionierung	pensionamento	retiro
reevaluation	ré-évaluation	Aufwertung	rivalutazione	reevaluación
rights issue	émission de droit de souscription	Bezugsrechtsemission	sottoscrizione riservata agli azionisti	emisión de derechos
risk	risque	Risiko	rischio	riesgo
rivalry	rivalité	Konkurrenzkampf	rivalità, concorrenza	rivalidad
salary	salaire, traitement	Gehalt	salario, stipendio	salario, sueldo
sales force	force de vente	Verkaufspersonal	personale di vendita	personal de ventas
sales forecast	prévision de ventes	Verkaufsvoraussage, Absatzprognose	previsione di vendita	previsión de ventas
sales promotion	vente promotionnelle	Verkaufskampagne	promozione vendite	promoción de ventas
sales representative / salesman / salesperson	représentant de commerce	Vertreter/in, Verkäufer/in	venditore	vendedor
sales target	objectif de vente	Verkaufsziel	obiettivo di vendite	objetivo de ventas

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	SPANISH
sales tax	impôt sur les ventes	Verkaufssteuer	imposte sulle vendite	impuesto sobre las ventas
sample	échantillon	Muster	campione	muestra
saturated (adj.)	saturé	gesättigt	saturo	saturado
save (v.)	épargner	sparen	risparmiare	ahorrar
savings	épargne	Ersparnisse	risparmi	ahorro
scarcity	rareté, pénurie	Knappheit	scarsità	escasez
seasonal unemployment	chômage saisonnier	saisonbedingte Arbeitslosigkeit	disoccupazione stagionale	desempleo estacional
securities	titres, valeurs	Wertpapiere	titoli, valori	títulos, valores
self-employed (adj.)	indépendent, qui travaille à son compte	selbständig	lavoratore autonomo	trabajador autónomo
self-financing	autofinancement	Eigenfinanzierung	autofinanziamento	autofinanciación
services	services	Dienstleistungen	servizi	servicios
settle (v.)	régler	bezahlen	saldare, estinguere	ajustar, liquidar
share / stock	action	Aktie	azione	acción
shareholder / stockholder	actionnaire	Aktionär/in	azionista, socio	accionista
shop / store	magasin	Laden	negozio, bottega	tienda
short-list	sélection préliminaire	Auswahlliste	prima selezione, lista ristretta	preselección
short-term (adj.)	à court-terme	kurzfristig	breve scadenza	a corto plazo
Single European Currency	monnaie unique européenne	Europäische Einheitswährung	valuta unica Europea	moneda única europea
skill	habileté, capacité	Geschicklichkeit, Fähigkeit	abilità, capacità	habilidad
skilled (adj.)	qualifié	geschickt, ausgebildet, qualifiziert	specializzato qualificato	especializado
sluggish	morose	flau	stagnante, fiacco	flojo, lento, deprimido
social security	sécurité sociale	Sozialhilfe, Sozial-versicherung	previdenza sociale	seguridad social
solvent (adj.)	solvable	zahlungsfähig, solvent	solvente	solvente
solvency	solvabilité	Zahlungsfähigkeit	solvibilità	solvencia
spot market	marché au comptant	Spotmarkt	mercato a pronti	mercado 'spot'
spread / margin	écart, marge	Spannweite, Marge	margin, scarto	margen diferencial
staff	personnel	Personal	personale	personal
stagnant (adj.)	stagnant	stockend	stagnante	estancando
stagnation	stagnation	Stagnation	ristagno	estancamiento
stake	participation	Anteil	partecipazione, investimento	participación, interés
standard of living	niveau de vie	Lebensstandard	tenore di vita	nivel de vida
standing order / banker's order	ordre permanent	Dauerauftrag	ordine fisso	orden permanente
stimulate (v.)	stimuler	ankurbeln	stimolare	estimular
stock / inventory	stock, réserve	Inventar	giacenza, scorta, inventario	existencias, inventario
stock exchange	bourse (des valeurs)	Börse	borsa valori	bolsa
stockbroker	agent de change	Börsenagent/in, Makler/in	agente di cambio	agente de cambio
strike	grève	Streik	sciopero	huelga
strike, go on (v.)	se mettre en grève	streiken	scioperare	declararse en, ir a la huelga
subcontractor	sous-traitant	Subunternehmer/in	subappaltatore	subcontratista
subordinate	subordonné	Untergebene/r	subordinato	subordinado
subsidiary	filiale	Tochtergesellschaft	filiale, società controllata	filial
superior / boss / line manager	supérieur hiérarchique	Vorgesetzte/r, Chef/in, Boss	superiore, capo reparto	superior, jefe
supermarket	supermarché	Supermarkt	supermercato	supermercado
supervise (v.)	surveiller	beaufsichtigen, überwachen	sorvegliare, sovrintendere	supervisar

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supplier	fournisseur	Lieferant/in	fornitore	proveedor
supply	offre	Angebot	fornire	oferta
surplus	excédent	Überschuss	eccedenza, eccesso	superávit, excedente
sustainable growth	croissance durable	nachhaltiges Wachstum	crescita sostenibile	crecimiento sostenible
swap	swap	Swap, Tausch	scambio, permuta	swap, intercambio
tactics	tactique	Taktik	tattiche	táctica
takeover	prise de contrôle, rachat	Übernahme	rilevamento, assorbimento	toma de control
takeover bid	offre publique d'achat	Übernahmeangebot	offerta di assorbimento	oferta pública de adquisición (o.p.a.)
target market	marché-cible	Zielmarkt	fascia di mercato	mercado objetivo
tariff	tarifs douaniers	Tarif	tariffa	tarifa
tax	impôt	Steuer	tassa, imposta	impuesto
taxation	imposition	Besteuerung	prelievi fiscali	imposición
tax avoidance	évasion fiscale	Steuerumgehung	elusione fiscale	evasión fiscal
tax-deductible (adj.)	déductible de l'impôt	von der Steuer absetzbar	detraibile	deducible de impuestos
tax evasion	fraude fiscale	Steuerhinterziehung	evasione fiscale	fraude fiscal
tax haven	paradis fiscal	Steuerparadies	paradiso fiscale	paraíso fiscal
tax loss	perte fiscale	Steuerverlust	perdita fiscale	pérdida fiscal
tax shelter	avantage fiscal	Steuerparadies	scudo fiscale	protección fiscal
team	équipe	Mannschaft, Team, Gruppe	gruppo	equipo
threshold effect	effet de seuil	Schwelleneffekt	effetto soglia	efecto umbral
till	caisse enregistreuse	Ladenkasse	registratore di cassa	caja registradora
top management	haute direction	Direktion	alta dirigenza	dirección superior
total cost	coût total	Gesamtkosten	costi globali	coste total
trade	commerce	Handel	commercio	comercio
trade barriers	barrières commerciales	Handelsschranken	barriere commerciali	barreras al comercio
trade mark	marque déposée	Warenzeichen	marchio commerciale	marca registrada
trader	négociant, commerçant	Händler/in	commerciante, operatore	comerciante
trainee	stagiaire	Auszubildende/r, Trainee	apprendista	aprendiz
training	formation	Ausbildung	formazione	formación
transfer	transfert	überweisung	trasferimento, bonifico	transferencia
Treasury Bill	Bon du Trésor à court terme	kurzfristiger Schatzwechsel	buoni del tesoro (B.O.T.)	letra del tesoro
Treasury Bond	Bon du Trésor à long terme	Schatzanweisung	certificati di credito del tesoro (C.C.T.)	bono del tesoro
trial	essai	Probe, Probezeit, Versuch	collaudo, prova	prueba
trough	creux	Tal	depressione, ristagno	depresión, hoyo
turnover	chiffre d'affaires	Umsatz	volume d'affari	volumen de ventas
undervalued (adj.)	sous-évalué	unterbewertet	sottovalutato	infravalorado
underwrite (v.)	garantir la souscription d'une émission	garantieren	sottoscrivere	asegurar, suscribir
unearned income	revenu d'investissements	Kapitaleinkommen	reddito da investimenti, rendite	renta no salarial
uneconomical (adj.)	peu économique, peu rentable	unwirtschaftlich	anti-economico	antieconómico
unemployed (adj.)	sans emploi	arbeitslos	disoccupato	desempleado, parado
unemployment	chômage	Arbeitslosigkeit	disoccupazione	desempleo, paro
unique selling proposition	proposition exclusive de vente	einzigartiges Verkaufsargument	proposta di vendita unica	proposición de venta única
unit cost	côût unitaire	Stückpreis	costo unitario	coste unitario
unlimited liability	responsabilité illimitée	unbeschränkte Haftung	responsabilità illimitata	responsabilidad ilimitada
unlisted securities	titres non cotées	nicht notierte Wertpapiere	titoli non quotati	titulos no cotizados
up-market (adj.)	haut-de-gamme	anspruchsvoll	selettivo, d'élite	gama alta
upturn	reprise	Aufschwung	ripresa, rialzo	recuperación económica

ENGLISH	ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	SPANISH
sales tax	user utilities	utilisateur services publics	Benutzer/in öffentliche Einrichtungen	utente servizi di pubblica utilità	usuario bienes públicos
sample	vacancy	emploi vacant	freie Stelle	impiego disponibile vacante	plaza vacante
saturated (adj.)					
save (v.)	value-added tax (VAT)	taxe sur la valeur ajoutée (TVA)	Mehrwertsteuer	imposta sul valore aggiunto (IVA)	impuesto sobre añadido (IV)
savings	vending machine	distributeur automatique	Verkaufsautomat	distributore automatico	máquina expen
scarcity	venture capital	capital risque	Risikokapital	capitale a rischio	capital riesgo
seasonal unempl	visible trade / merchandise trade	commerce de biens	offener Handel	scambio visibile	comercio de b
securities					
self-employed (a	vote (v.)	voter	stimmen	votare	votar
self-financing	wage, wages	salaire	Lohn	salario, retribuzione	salario
services	warehouse	entrepôt	Lagerhaus	magazzino	almacén
settle (v.)	waste products	déchets	Abfallprodukte	prodotto di scarto	desperdicios
share / stock	wealth	richesse	Vermögen, Wohlstand	ricchezza, patrimonio	riqueza
shareholder /	wealth tax	impôt sur la fortune	Vermögenssteuer	imposta patrimoniale	impuesto sobre patrimonio
stockholder					
shop / store	welfare	bien-être, aide sociale	Wohlfahrt, Fürsorge	benessere	bienestar
short-list	wholesaler	grossiste	Grosshändler/in	grossista	mayorista
	wholesale trade	commerce de gros	Grosshandel	commercio all'ingrosso	comercio al p
short-term (adj.)	withdraw (v.)	retirer	zurückziehen	prelevare	retirar
Single European	word-of-mouth	publicité de bouche	Mundpropaganda	passaparola	publicidad de en boca
Currency	advertising	à oreille			
skill	work	travail	Arbeit	lavoro	trabajo
	work force	personnel, population active	Belegschaft	forza lavoro	masa obrera
skilled (adj.)					
	working capital	fonds de roulement	Betriebskapital	capitale d'esercizio	capital circula
sluggish	working conditions	conditions de travail	Arbeitsbedingungen	condizioni di lavoro	condiciones
social security					
	yield	rendement	Ertrag	resa, rendimento	rendimiento
solvent (adj.)					
solvency					
spot market					
spread / margin					
staff					
stagnant (adj.)					
stagnation					
stake					
standard of livi					
standing order					
banker's ordi					
stimulate (v.)					
stock / invento					
stock exchange					
stockbroker					
strike					
strike, go on (v					
subcontractor					
subordinate					
subsidiary					
superior / boss					
line manage					
supermarket					
supervise (v.)					